REPORT RESUMES

ED 013 633 JC 670 850

ADMINISTERING THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE IN A CHANGING WORLD, PAPERS PRESENTED AT THE ANNUAL CONFERENCE OF THE UNIVERSITY COUNCIL FOR EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION (9TH, BUFFALO, 1966). BUFFALO STUDIES.

BY- MARTORANA, S. V. HUNTER, PAULINE F.
STATE UNIV. OF N.Y., BUFFALO
REPORT NUMBER SUNY-B-VOL-2-NO-1-JUN-66 PUB DATE JUN 66
UNIVERSITY COUNCIL FOR EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
EDRS PRICE MF-$0.75 HC-$7.88 197P.

DESCRIPTORS- *JUNIOR COLLEGES, *ADMINISTRATIVE POLICY, *COLLEGE ADMINISTRATION, *ADMINISTRATOR RESPONSIBILITY, TEACHER ADMINISTRATOR RELATIONSHIP, CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT, ARTICULATION (PROGRAM), FINANCIAL SUPPORT, EDUCATIONAL FINANCE, CONFERENCE REPORTS,

THIS 1966 CONFERENCE EXPLORED THE INTERNAL AND EXTERNAL FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE TEACHING, RESEARCH, PLANNING, AND ADMINISTRATION IN THE JUNIOR COLLEGE. THE PRESENTATIONS INCLUDED (1) THE ROLE OF THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE IN FUTURE EDUCATION, (2) GENERAL SOCIAL, CULTURAL, AND INDUSTRIAL CHANGES THAT AFFECT THE JUNIOR COLLEGES, (3) THE URBANIZATION OF SOCIETY, (4) DEVELOPMENTS IN ECONOMICS AND PUBLIC FINANCE, (5) OCCUPATIONAL CHANGES, (6) DEVELOPMENT AND MAINTENANCE OF EFFECTIVE CURRICULUMS, (7) THE NEED FOR RESPONSIVE ADMINISTRATORS, (8) THE ENCOURAGEMENT OF CONSTRUCTIVE FACULTY-ADMINISTRATOR RELATIONSHIPS, (9) AN INTERIM REPORT ON A TRANSFER-STUDENT STUDY, AND (10) ARTICULATION BETWEEN 2- AND 4-YEAR COLLEGES. SPECIAL ATTENTION WAS GIVEN TO THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE UNIVERSITY TO THE JUNIOR COLLEGE, WITH PARTICULAR REFERENCE TO (1) PREPARATION OF FACULTY AND ADMINISTRATORS, (2) PROGRAMS OF SERVICE AND ASSISTANCE, AND (3) RESEARCH PROGRAMS IN JUNIOR COLLEGE EDUCATION. (HH)

Buffalo Studies

PUBLISHED BY THE STATE UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK AT BUFFALO
Volume II
Number I
June, 1966

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

THIS DOCUMENT HAS BEEN REPRODUCED EXACTLY AS RECEIVED FROM THE PERSON OR ORGANIZATION ORIGINATING IT. POINTS OF VIEW OR OPINIONS STATED DO NOT NECESSARILY REPRESENT OFFICIAL OFFICE OF EDUCATION POSITION OR POLICY.

ED013633

ADMINISTERING THE COMMUNITY COLLEGE IN A CHANGING WORLD

PAPERS PRESENTED AT THE 9th ANNUAL CONFERENCE OF THE UNIVERSITY COUNCIL FOR EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Edited by
S. V. MARTORANA
and
PAULINE F. HUNTER

UNIVERSITY OF CALIF.
LOS ANGELES

SEP 15 1967

CLEARINGHOUSE FOR
JUNIOR COLLEGE
INFORMATION

A CONTINUATION OF "THE UNIVERSITY OF BUFFALO STUDIES"

JC 670 850

BUFFALO STUDIES

A Continuation of "The University of Buffalo Studies"

Conference Proceedings

on

Administering The Community College In A Changing World

Edited by

S. V. MARTORANA
Executive Dean of the Two-Year Colleges
State University of New York, Albany

and

PAULINE F. HUNTER
Associate Professor, School of Education,
State University of New York at Buffalo

Published jointly by
THE UNIVERSITY COUNCIL FOR
EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
and
THE SCHOOL OF EDUCATION,
STATE UNIVERSITY OF NEW YORK AT BUFFALO

I

Foreword

Within the past five years, new developments in community college education have occurred in Ohio, Pennsylvania, Maryland, Kentucky, West Virginia and Massachusetts as well as in New York State. Buffalo is in a geographic location central to this entire region. This, plus the fact that State University of New York at Buffalo is committed to expanding its program to include the community college field, made it an excellent sponsor for this seminar.

The seminar was planned under the auspices of the School of Education of the State University at Buffalo and the University Council for Educational Administration. The latter is a professional association of graduate programs in educational administration whose professors convene, periodically, to improve the quality of their professional action in educational administration. This seminar attracted forty professors of educational administration from representative sections of the United States and Canada. They represented major institutions of higher education throughout the Nation.

In addition to the professors of educational administration, many New York State community college presidents attended. They contributed to the discussion from their concern with immediate administrative problems and issues.

We at Buffalo welcomed the opportunity to co-sponsor the seminar. We are convinced much was said of value to the evolving community college movement. We are appreciative of the many fine presentations which were made.

The primary responsibility for the development and conduct of the seminar rested with Dr. Pauline F. Hunter, Associate Professor of Higher Education at State University and Dr. S. V. Martorana, Executive Dean of the Two-Year Colleges of the State University of New York. Each is to be commended for the diligence and the insight which led to the success of the seminar. Finally, we would wish to express appreciation to Mr. Joseph Nechasek, a graduate student in higher education, for the many things he did to make the seminar a success.

DEAN ROBERT S. FISK
School of Education
State University of New York

Preface

The unique position of the community colleges in American society makes it imperative that the administrators of these institutions understand the complex of factors that are continually shaping them. The philosophic foundations and flexible modes of operation of community colleges resist the traditions and stability of the four-year colleges and universities. As society changes, community colleges change to meet society's needs for education immediately beyond the high school level. The community college administrator, more than others, therefore, needs to be apprised of new thinking on problems which bear directly on the direction these institutions will take in the next decade.

The philosophy of the two-year college needs to be expressed and stressed repeatedly, and the articulation of philosophy and the importance of this philosophy to the administration of these institutions is a recurrent problem. Professors of administration should note these facts and relate them to matters which junior college adminisrators might handle. The importance given by professors of educational administration to the problem of articulation of two-year and four-year programs for example, is of great significance to the junior college movement.

The need for research in community college education is paramount. The foundation upon which to build the future directions of these institutions is dependent upon an understanding of the society they serve, an awareness of how they are to be financed, an understanding of what kind of education is necessary for occupational change and for life in an urban society. Participation in the seminar was seen to be helpful to a clearer appreciation of areas in which new research is needed.

The seminar, the proceedings of which are presented in this monograph, had the following purposes: (1) To explore new thinking and knowledge necessary for an understanding of the role of the two-year college in a changing world. (2) To relate this new knowledge to the continuing development of the two-year college and to the administrative process. (3) To examine carefully with professors of educational administration the problems of articulation between the secondary school and two-year college philosophy and administration and, (4) To open research areas which may have been useful to the participants.

The criteria set forth as a prerequisite for the Career Development Seminars were met through the exploration of "challenging ideas" on the "frontier of knowledge." A complex of external factors which influence the direction these institutions will take in the decades to come was explored. These factors included a new society, a new economics related to school finance, and frontier thinking on the effects of occupational change and urbanization.

In addition to the external factors that influence the role of the two-year college, internal factors which influence the leadership of these institutions were explored. These factors included, among others, the changing nature of the student clientele and faculty-administrative relationships.

The content for discussion at the seminar set forth a series of companion papers on topics which influence teaching, research and administration in the junior college field. The companion papers took up the problems related to the society and the junior college, to the financing of junior college education, problems of urbanization and its effect on junior college education, and to the occupational trends and the implications of these trends for planning junior college education. The papers present broad issues on important matters confronting American education as seen by some of the Nation's outstanding leaders in the areas of sociology, economics, urbanization and occupations. The implications of these broad issues for community college administration were reviewed by distinguished educators whose work is more specifically related to problems of community college education.

The seminar was planned so that the educators speaking on the broader issues would exchange papers with the leaders in junior college education in advance of the presentation of the papers. This exchange of papers was intended to bring cohesion and coherence to the issues discussed. In addition, the planning committee believed that the organization of the seminar in such a manner would identify new research areas which could be explored by professors of educational administration.

An evaluation of the seminar revealed that planning of this type is stimulating and provocative, but that work sessions by the conference participants with the seminar leaders might lead to a more fruitful experience for the participants. Broad issues need to be synthesized with more specific ones so that practitioners and others can come to grips with the problems related directly to the community colleges in the Nation. Discussion of issues and problems related to junior college education are irrelevant without understanding of means of putting to work practical application of the issues.

The conference planners would like to express thanks to the planning committee who assisted us in the initial organization of the conference: Jack Culbertson and Bryce Fogarty from the University Council; Jesse R. Barnet, Program Associate, American Association of Junior Colleges; Professors Adelle H. Land, G. Lester Anderson, and George Holloway and Dean Robert S. Fisk and Assistant Dean Kenneth Toepfer from State University of New York at Buffalo. Thanks are also directed specifically to Joseph E. Nechasek and Phyllis Munson, graduate students in higher education at State University of New York at Buffalo, who organized and coordinated the many details of the conference.

S. V. MARTORANA

PAULINE F. HUNTER

March 5, 1966

Buffalo, New York

Contents

Page No.

1 *The Role of the Community College in the Future Education of American Youth* S. V. Martorana 3

2 *Social and Cultural Changes Molding the Future of the American People* Robert J. Havighurst 17

3 *Implications of Social and Cultural Change for Community College Administration* Leland L. Medsker 33

4 *The Urbanization of American Society* John Bebout 45

5 *Implications of Urbanization for Community College Administration* Joseph P. Cosand 63

6 *New Developments in Economics of Education* Werner Z. Hirsch 75

7 *Implications of New Developments in Economics and Public Finance for Community College Administration* James L. Wattenbarger 91

8 *New Outlooks for Occupational Change in the United States* Bernard Michael 103

9 *Implications of Occupational Change for Community College Administration* Ralph R. Fields 127

10 *Developing and Maintaining Effective Curriculums in the Two-Year College* William G. Dwyer 137

11 *Encouraging Constructive Faculty-Administrator Relationships* James P. Walsh 145

12 *The Two-Year College Transfer Student — An Interim Report* Thomas Shea 155

13 *Problems Influencing Articulation Between Two and Four-Year Colleges* Pauline F. Hunter 175

14 *Initiating Programs in Teaching, Administration and Research in Community Colleges* G. Lester Anderson 183

15 *Panel Reactions To "Initiating Programs in Teaching, Administration and Research in Community Colleges"* Donald Willower, Max S. Smith, Thomas E. O'Connell 201

1

The Role of the Community College in the Future Education of American Youth

by

S. V. MARTORANA

The Role of the Community College In the Future Education of American Youth

S. V. Martorana, Executive Dean of the Two-Year Colleges, State University of New York.

Chancellor Furnas, Dean Fisk, Professors from member institutions of the University Council on Educational Administration, colleagues and friends in community and technical college education. My remarks this evening are addressed, perhaps, more to one of the four groups that were identified by Dean Fisk in his introductory remarks than to the other three. As you will notice as I get along into the talk my comments and suggestions will be more directly addressed to the members of the University Council on Educational Administration. At the same time I believe that the content of my paper will also have relevance for the work being carried on by community college administrators, special consultants to this career seminar, and to graduate students enrolled in programs leading to professional careers in community colleges.

During the past several years I have been privileged to be involved and allowed to participate in a good number of conferences, planning sessions, and meetings of various kinds relevant to higher education in general and to the course that the development of higher education is expected to take here in New York State in particular. The privilege and opportunity to be involved in this way was, I realize, due largely to the fact that as assistant commissioner for higher education planning, I was working on a very important assignment for the New York State Board of Regents, an assignment that I hope and believe was carried out effectively by the successful development and publication of the Regents 1964 Plan for the Expansion and Development of Higher Education in New York State—the first such plan and report in the history of the State.[1]

But of all the important meetings of recent years, none in my mind was as important or as filled with potential for productive results for the long-range good of higher education, both for New York and for other states, as this one that is starting tonight. I am highly grateful and pleased that I can be a part of it. In carrying out my part in the meeting I will try not only to portray and emphasize why I believe this conference to be so important, but also to cause you to extend your fullest efforts to the business of the conference and to carry its results with you to each of your home campuses. Only if this is done by each of you will this conference really achieve the purposes and lasting effects its planners intended.

---

[1] *The Regents Statewide Plan for the Expansion and Development of Higher Education, 1964.* The University of the State of New York. The State Education Department, Albany, N. Y. April, 1964.

The topic to which we are asked to address ourselves this evening is the role of the community college in the future education of American youth, and it is precisely because I beileve that the role can and is likely going to be both very large and very influential that I attach a deep sense of importance to this University Council on Educational Administration Career Development Seminar. Notice that I have used some guarded language in the statement just made. I did not say that the role of the community college is going to be large and effective in the future education of American youth; I said that, in my mind, it can and is likely to be so. Whether or not the full potential of service in the post-high school education of youth and adults inherent in the community college idea and philosophy, as this is now understood, actually eventuates, rests in very large measure on the actions taken by you participants in this conference. Your actions in dealing with your colleagues back at your home campuses, in dealing also with the publics with which you come in contact, and in associating with your students can make or break the community college in fulfilling its role of post-high school educational service in the nation.

These are strong words, but I believe them to be true. Let me explain further what I mean.

There can be little doubt that in the foreseeable future there will be a continuation or even an acceleration of two already well-established trends. One is to provide more opportunity for formal education for more of our youth, and the other is to provide more programs of a quasi-educational nature for more of our out-of-school population, both youth and adults. During the past decade almost every state in the nation has established some new program to extend opportunity for formal post-high school education. Some of the states as in the cases of Alabama and Pennsylvania in 1964 and Connecticut in 1965 established steps toward new state-wide systems of community colleges. Others, as in the cases of Arkansas, New York, North Carolina, Massachusetts and others in recent years have created new programs of financial aid to students to assist them to carry on their educational pursuits. After making a new departure in support of education with enactment of the National Defense Act of 1958, the Federal Government has come forward with programs of multi-billion dollar aid to expand higher education to all levels and to help many students to take advantage of the new opportunities available.

At the same time we have seen a stream of new programs of quasi-educational nature. Here for example are the training programs set in motion by the federally sponsored Manpower Development Act, the Economic Opportunity Act, the Appalachia Act, and others.

Though lesser known or reported in the national press, many state programs were formulated recently with much the same purposes and results as were held for the federal enactments. To cite just a couple of illustrations from New York State, your attention is called to the College Discovery Program of City University of New York which the State Legislature approved in 1964 and reaffirmed in 1965, and the new efforts to extend the education and training opportunities for women in New York State.

Yet the clamor for a greater educational reach to the youth in our population continues. Recently, in a nationally syndicated column, columnist Holmes Alexander commented on the new and "Upward Bound" program for education and sums up his evaluation of the program which is sponsored by Sargent Shriver, head of the Office of Economic Opportunity, in these words:

> "But Upward Bound is also something beyond personal salvation. Its director is an unorthodox young educator, Dr. Richard Frost, whom Shriver has imported from Oregon. Frost had been in town only a few hours when he began firing verbal broadsides into the Education Establishment. The high-quality universities, he said, made their reputations by rejecting non-brilliant students and flunking out a third of those accepted. It was a survival-of-the-fittest system that suited the yesteryears when a diploma was a social distinction and the goal of education was a production of an intellectual elite.
>
> But now that the twin explosions of population and technology have almost doomed the uneducated to unemployment, creating a whole cast of relief rollers and back street criminals, Frost feels the pedagogue can no longer get by with teaching only the bright and cooperative.
>
> Upward Bound starts with the handicap of a silly slogan which tags it with superficiality and public relations razzle-dazzle. But Shriver and Frost have their hands around an idea that shouldn't be belittled."[2]

---

2. *The Knickerbocker News,* Albany, N. Y., October 13, 1965.

I believe much of the importance of what Mr. Alexander is trying to convey to the public is in that last phrase "an idea that shouldn't be belittled."

All of you are well acquainted, I am sure, with the recent publication of the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association, calling for universalization of post-high school education, much as high school education is generally universalized now.[3] The call for such action is not restricted to leaders in the educational world, however. Asserting that fourteen years of formal schooling is not a "luxury but a necessity", Arthur J. Goldberg, ambassador to the United Nations, in an article published in the *Junior College Journal* last month goes on to say, "But it is the duty of society to build an educational system which fits the abilities and fulfills the needs of each particular individual."[4] (Goldberg incidentally is a graduate of Chicago City Junior College.) And more than incidental notice should be taken that his statement sounds very much like the motto of State University of New York. The motto of State University of New York, for you people who come from outside this state, is, "Let Each Become All He Is Capable of Being." We should notice that the position held by Mr. Goldberg in his statement is not one confined only to those people who share his particular political persuasion. Other leaders in our nation who disagree with Mr. Goldberg politically are on record supporting the same position of extension of universal educational opportunity that is reflected in the article he has published in the *Junior College Journal.*

I have a strong hunch that all along in this presentation so far, many of you have been asking yourselves the qestion, "When is he going to get to the statistics?" According to the usual script in a talk about the role of the community college now and in the future, there should be a section on the historic and expected growth of the community college, and no doubt you have been expecting to hear the story again tonight.

But if this is so, I'm going to disappoint you because I am not going to dwell on what I am sure you have already heard and know. My intent in describing the push for more post-high school education in the nation was not to set the stage for statistics to impress you again with the really astounding rate of growth of community colleges. Rather, the purpose for stressing the state and national efforts to create more post-high school educational opportunity was to show that the role of the community college (defined as all types of public post-high school two-year institutions) in the future of education of American youth has to be defined in a context much broader than the formal American educational structure of elementary, secondary, and higher education. The role of the community college must be defined also in terms of the relationships that this institution holds and will hold in the future to many existing and new social, economic, cultural and political institutions which are, to say the least, quasi or semi-educational in function, and which duplicate or overlap the community college in purpose, in program, and in clientele served.

---

[3] Educational Policies Commission, *Universal Opportunity for Education Beyond the High School,* pp. 4-5. Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1964.

[4] Arthur J. Goldberg, "Education for Freedom and Equality," *Junior College Journal,* XXXVI (September, 1965), p. 7.

Here is where this conference, your participation in it, and your following-up efforts after you leave it, can be extremely important and critically helpful. So I turn in the last half of my presentation, not to defining the role of the community college, but to raising for your consideration and attention some critical questions about the role of these institutions and how this seminar and you participants can help to sharpen, explain, and perfect that role. In short, I want to talk about what may be termed "research and development" in community college administration—a matter with which all of you are certainly very directly concerned.

We who are in the daily position of administering, promoting, and interpreting community colleges need the help of you who are active in research in and development of educational administration. To point out some possibilities as to how your efforts in research and in improvement of practices in administration can help, I would like you to consider four matters relevant to the community college development in American education. These are (1) the commitment of educational service these institutions have, (2) the record of accomplishment or execution of their commitment which the community colleges have achieved thus far, (3) the techniques of evaluation and analysis that have been applied to their performance, and (4) the techniques and procedures by which the community colleges can be given improved or reinforced direction where this is now weak.

Commitment of Service

For at least the last 45 years or so of the roughly 60 years that the public junior or community college movement has been in evidence in American education, there has been general and increasing consensus among educational scholars and researchers that the institution was to perform five broad, but basic functions. As early as 1920, Leonard V. Koos, in his classic and then monumental Commonwealth Study, identified these functions. More recently, new writers, some of whom are with us tonight such as: Leland Medsker and his associates at the University of California; Ralph Fields and his associates at Columbia University; and Clyde Blocker, a community college president, and his associates have redescribed and re-emphasized the same goals for community colleges.[5] In February 1964, the New York State Board of Regents published a pamphlet again setting forth these five large purposes and I should like to quote from the Regents' 1964 Plan to emphasize them again to you.

"III—The comprehensive community colleges should be expected to perform the following specific educational functions:

A. General Education. To provide post-secondary school general background and experience for all students in conjunction with study in their major academic field.

B. College or University Transfer Education. To provide the requisite courses for two years of collegiate study for students who are interested and competent to carry their studies to the bachelor's degree.

C. Occupational or Terminal Education. To provide programs of education and training beyond the high school, but below the professional level, for students seeking, for whatever reason, immediate entry into the productive labor force in business, industry, or government organizations in need of employees with higher level abilities; and for persons already employed but seeking to improve or learn new skills required in our changing economic and cultural environment.

D. Adult or Continuing Education. To provide programs of continuing education appropriate to and consistent with the level immediately above the high school in the educational system to assist adults of all ages to meet changing educational, cultural, and economic conditions and to implement changes in their personal objectives.

---

[5] Leonard V. Koos, *The Junior College,* Vol. I., pp. 27-187. Minneapolis, Minn.: The University of Minnesota, 1924.
Leland Medsker, *The Junior College, Progress and Prospect,* pp. 51-83. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960.
Ralph R. Fields, *The Community College Movement,* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1962.
Clyde E. Blocker, Robert H. Plummer, and Richard C. Richardson, *The Two-Year College, A Social Synthesis,* pp. 12-20. New York: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1965.

E. Guidance and Counseling. To provide for all students the necessary testing, guidance, and counseling to enable each one to know and to accept his strengths and limitations and to choose the program most suited to him in the light of objective information and his personal situation at the time."[6]

These five purposes of community college education are not new to many of you. Yet you should keep them well and constantly in mind as you pursue your discussions of the next three days. As you do this, with the wealth of new and up-to-date information about the sociological, cultural, and economic conditions that mark our changing world, you will and should ask such questions as these: Can these tasks actually be effectively discharged by the community college in today and tomorrow's world? Are these exclusively the tasks for community colleges to perform? If the tasks are to be shared by some other formal educational agencies or quasi or semi-educational agencies, what procedures or structures can best be established to bring about such cooperative relationships?

The Record of Accomplishment

Despite the fact that there is in general little argument about the five broad educational functions which community colleges should get done, there is considerable doubt among community college leaders that the established tasks are in fact being accomplished. Professor Medsker in his extensive study of the public junior college, in several places calls attention to the uneven success reached by public two-year colleges in achieving their accepted goals. He also calls for more consensus and directed effort to correct this matter.[7]

This is not to say that the community colleges have failed or are failing in their responsibilities. It means definitely, however, that the record of achievement is spotty and disbalanced. Perhaps during the course of this seminar you can cast more light immediately onto why this disbalanced achievement has come about or, if this cannot be done, propose some new studies or approaches to finding this out. More than this, you should ask: Is the record of the community colleges when studied in the light of future conditions in our society likely to show a more even accomplishment of the five goals stated or one which will be still more ragged than is now recorded? If it is presumed that the record should be more even and complete, how can research and development in administration help to get this result?

---

[6] *The Regents Statewide Plan, op. cit.*, p. 124.

[7] Leland Medsker, *op. cit.*, pp. 23-27, 135, 160-67, 204, 316-20.

Evaluation and Analysis

Obviously, the statements already made indicate that community college has for some time been subjected to quite a bit of intensive and extensive study and critical analysis. More is certain to take place as the institution becomes more prevalent and assumes greater prominence in the total American educational enterprise.

One can say with little fear of challenge, however, that much of the published research about the public community college is of descriptive nature rather than penetratingly analytical. The studies coming out of the Center for the Study of Higher Education at Berkeley,[8] I believe, are among the exceptions, but the generalization just stated is a defensible one.

We do see some beginnings of more probing research in aspects of the community college other than of administration. One of the claims made often by and for these colleges is that they are unique and quite different from other types of higher educational institutions, and some penetrating research into this contention has been recently released. One study on this is the work of the American College Testing Service in Iowa and reports that the environmental influence on students and the attitudes toward their college experience is in some important respects significantly different in community colleges than was found in comparable studies in other types of colleges.[9] A like conclusion is reported in the preliminary release of the study on transfer students from two-year colleges to four-year colleges now underway by Thomas Shea, State University of New York, and Alex Ducannis, of the New York State Education Department.[10]

---

[8] *See for example:* Leland Medsker, *op. cit.;* Burton R. Clark, *The Open Door College: A Case Study,* New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1960; and Dorothy Knoell, *A Digest of Research Reports,* Berkeley, Calif.: Center for the Study of Higher Education, University of California, 1965, pp. 1-96.

[9] James M. Richards, Jr., Lorraine M. Rand, and Leonard P. Rand, *A Description of Junior Colleges,* Iowa City, Iowa: American College Testing Program, 1965, p. 27.

[10] Thomas Shea and Alex J. Ducannis, "A Study of Articulation of Two-Year and Four-year Colleges," U.S. Office of Education Cooperative Research Study contracted to the State University of New York and the New York State Education Department, preliminary report of findings, (unpublished).

But these are not studies directly related to the administration of community colleges. The most notable effort to date in this aspect of community college operations is the nationwide Leadership Training Program sponsored by the Kellogg Foundation, American Association of Junior Colleges and ten of the nation's major universities. This, however, is more directed at the development of administrative personnel than aimed at basic research in the administrative process. Except for the by-products of research produced by some of the graduate fellows in the program by their theses and dissertations, little basic research results have emanated from the Kellogg Leadership Training Program. This is not a criticism of the program, but merely a recognition of its different main purpose. The program has indeed been an excellent one in producing more effective and a greater number of administrators. But related research has been very little.

The fact of the matter is that in the field of community college administration we just have not had the kind of pervasive and penetrating research typical of the efforts of members of the University Council for Educational Administration in the fields of elementary and secondary school administration. Much more fundamental research is needed in community college administration that deals particularly with the subtleties of the process and especially in the realms of decision making, communication, and processes and techniques of administrative control.

Indeed, one of the topics most contentiously debated in the literature and among the leaders of community colleges is the question of the best or most advantageous structure or education organization within which these colleges should be placed. (I, myself, have contributed my share to this debate.) In all honesty, again, however, it has to be reported that much of this debate over the past 3 or 4 decades has been based on rather shallow studies. Our evaluation of the administrative organization of community colleges has been based again essentially on descriptive studies. You specialists in research in this field can help provide much more definitive criteria and analytic techniques than any that have yet been utilized.

In the improvement and refinement of our efforts to evaluate the community college as an educational and social institution we need to ask ourselves several hard questions. One, for example, would be: Are we still trying to fit a new educational concept into old molds of administrative structures? Must the community college be attached structurally with the public high school levels? Or with the university level? How well do various structures work and, more importantly, why do they perform as they do? What criteria of evaluation and anaylsis can be applied? How long must they be applied before definitive judgments can be made? And again, why?

Improved or Reinforced Direction

Finally, your attention is called to the fact that the community colleges seem constantly to need reaffirmation of their educational purposes and repeated interpretation of their goals and programs. Even among persons actively engaged in community college work (I am here referring to faculty and administrators) there exists too often only a partial appreciation of the institution, its educational mission, characteristics, and programs. This can be and often is a real threat to the effectiveness of the services the colleges can provide to their constituencies.

Beyond the college personnel, the condition I am referring to is even worse. Despite the yeoman and energetic efforts of the American Association of Junior Colleges and despite comparably serious work by state and local interests in community colleges, the general public's understanding and appreciation of the community college as a viable and meaningful institution in our society is very, very weak, vague, or sometimes downright erroneous!

At the same time this is said, you should also notice that major decisions are being made almost every day that affect the community colleges and their operations. And, hear this; these decisions are being made not by professionals in the administration of community colleges armed with developed and refined knowledge, specialized training, and extensive research on the questions at hand. The decisions are being made by members of state legislatures; the federal congress; state university faculty, administrators, and boards of trustees; state boards of education, and state education departments, too often with little or no consultation with specialists in the community college level of education.

What are the implications of what I have said for research and development in community college education? They are, I believe, many and far reaching. Public interpretation of the enterprise administered is a vital aspect of the administrative process. Development of knowledge about the process and effectiveness of techniques of communication is your professional responsibility. The members of the University Council on Educational Administration have proved their ability to find the answers to the comparable problem at the elementary and secondary level. We hope this seminar will be the start to new efforts to find the answers also which relate to community college education.

Conclusion

This takes me to the conclusion of my remarks this evening. In closing there are just two items of informational nature that you should know. One is related to one of the obvious actions suggested throughout my remarks, namely, that we need more centers for research, special studies, and development concentrating on the community college, its program, and the clientele it serves. We at the State University of New York are going to do our bit in this regard by encouraging the development of just such a center here at the State University of New York at Buffalo. In doing this, I am sure I speak for all at State University of New York and at State University of New York at Buffalo when I say all efforts to support and assist this new center will be very much appreciated.

The other fact for your attention relates to my comments tonight and the program of the next three days. My purpose here has been to try to show the great need for more information, more precise knowledge, more tested techniques about administration of community colleges. We need this back-up and supporting material now as we try to carry forward the work of these institutions from day to day. But, even more, we need this kind of enlightened understanding as it will bear on our work tomorrow—when we will be living in a world quite different from the one we are in today.

This conference is planned so that some of the best minds in the country who know the nature and trends of change in our society can team up with some of the best minds in the community college administration. Together they can assess the conditions and status of today and look into the likelihoods of tomorrow. Out of the process, we sincerely hope will come not only better answers for immediate application to current problems, but steps toward more effective community colleges in the future.

There is no doubt in my mind that during the rest of this century the community college will have a greater and more influential role in the education of American youth. For me this is almost an act of faith and intuitive sense of justice that the needs of the masses of youth and adult for more education after high school will be provided for. Many others in this conference, I know, share this faith with me. You people through your work in research and development can buttress the faith of workers in community college education in the validity of the concept they hold by providing hard hitting facts and perfected methods in administration. My sincerest wishes to all of you for a stimulating and productive Career Development Seminar.

2

Social and Cultural Changes Molding the Future of the American People

by

RORERT J. HAVIGHURST

Social and Cultural Changes Molding the Future of the American People

PROFESSOR ROBERT J. HAVIGHURST, University of Chicago

There are five contemporary social processes that have been in operation during the present century and are acting to create a new world far different from that into which we entered with the twentieth century. The date, 1900, seems almost archaic. We would do better to date the initiation of these processes with 1950.

These social processes and the social forces that associate with them operate in the closest interaction with our educational system. They depend on the educational system and they transform the educational system at the same time.

I *THE EXPANSION OF HUMAN ACTION IN SPACE AND TIME*

Due to the speeding-up of travel we have extended our reach. When the wind and the muscles of a horse provided the energy for locomotion, a man could travel 30 to 100 miles a day. Soon we will travel with the speed of sound. Thus, we cover more space and crowd more action into a unit of time than was humanly conceivable a few decades ago.

The world has grown so small that people now start in the morning from Chicago to New York, eat a leisurely breakfast on the way, do a day's work in New York, and have a comfortable dinner on the way back, arriving in Chicago in time to attend the evening performance of the Chicago Symphony. Time has become so crowded with action that a man can go around the world in 80 hours, instead of the 80 days that Jules Verne's hero required. Within ten years we expect to land an earth man on the moon.

With this has come a growing measure of human control over the forces of nature. Only 200 years ago man was begging a little power from nature so as to make his labor and that of his oxen less arduous. So he rigged up a waterwheel to borrow some energy from running water. Or he burned some coal to make steam to run a cotton spinning machine. Man was a little child asking Mother Nature for the use of some of the energy she had in such profusion. The situation was not much different in 1900, or in 1940. Since then man has become almost an equal partner with

Nature. Having become able to turn matter into energy, man has uncounted resources for making and moving material things. No less significant are the accomplishments of synthetic chemistry. One has but to describe the properties of a new kind of container, or an antibiotic, or a piece of cloth, or a metal, and the research laboratory will produce it for him in three months. And synthetic biology appears to be just around the corner. The magic phrase—Research and Development—is the theme of success for the modern industrial corporation.

II *MASS PRODUCTION, AUTOMATION, CYBERNATION, AND THE CHANGING SIGNIFICANCE OF WORK*

The notion of work as one aspect of human living must have emerged in the course of social evolution together with division of labor and the concept of property. Before that time, hunting and food-gathering were necessary and interesting parts of living, but hardly to be distinguished from other activities in the parcelling out of a family's time and energy.

Work is an artifact of civilization. As complex societies came into existence, some people gained power and wealth by controlling and ordering the work of other people. Then people began to distinguish among types of work. Some types were more desirable than others. The hard work that required a minimum of skill became the least desirable form of work, while the most desirable kinds involved the utilization of a talent or a skill derived from training, the control of one's working time by the worker, and the production of a useful or desirable goods and services. In her book entitled *The Human Condition,* Hannah Arendt[1] traces the evolution of the concept of work and of the values of various kinds of work.

Men came to see nearly all kinds of work positively in Western Europe with the rise of capitalism and of Protestantism, and the decline of serfdom and slavery. Work had social and religious support. Work became the axis of an orderly and a good life. The woman worked in the home and often in the field. The man worked at his job. Then, as women became "emancipated" in the late 19th and the 20th centuries, women also sought careers in work and were honored for it.

By the beginning of the 20th century some of the drudgery and heavy burden of work was relieved by shorter hours, machinery, and better pay. Thus work increased in social and personal attractiveness in Western civilization, culminating about 1950 in relatively high wages and salaries, a work-week and work year that were not physically or mentally exhausting, and a concept of a work career as the axis of moral and social life.

---

[1] Hannah Arendt, *The Human Condition*. Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1958.

An orderly work career was also seen as a guarantee of stable social adjustment on the part of an individual. The best citizens were good workers. Wilensky[2] has recently studied the relation between participation as a citizen and the nature of the work career. He finds that civic participation tends to go along with an "orderly work career." This is a career which offers much freedom within the work role, and provides sustained and wide-ranging contacts with customer or client, and offers systematic promotion or improvement in work status.

Thus, good workers are at the same time good citizens and good men.

Generally speaking, people in the western world like their work. Blauner[3] surveyed several hundred studies of job satisfaction and found a median percentage of 13 percent dissatisfied. That is, they gave negative answers to a question such as "Taking into consideration all the things about your job (work), how satisfied or dissatisfied are you with it?" There are occupational differences, with people in the more prestigeful occupations better satisfied than those in the semi-skilled and unskilled occupations.

The Meanings of Work. A number of studies have been made of the meanings or significance of their work to people. They have been asked to talk as freely as they can about the things that are good and bad about their work. The meanings associated with work are overwhelmingly positive. In a study of mature workers in a variety of occupations, Friedmann and Havighurst[4] found the meanings of work:

A challenging new experience
A feeling of being creative
A place to meet and to be with one's friends
A feeling of being of service

---

[2] Harold L. Wilensky, "Orderly Careers and Social Participation." *American Sociological Review.* 26: 521-539, (1961).

[3] Robert Blauner, "Work Satisfaction and Industrial Trends in Modern Society," pp. 339-360 in *Labor and Trade Unionism,* Galenson and Lipset eds. New York: John Wiley, 1960.

[4] Eugene A. Friedmann and Robert J. Havighurst, *The Meaning of Work and Retirement.* Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1954.

A source of prestige or social approval
A way of making time pass
A heavy and unpleasant burden

These generally positive meanings of work are found especially in people of Western culture. They represent a kind of *instrumental activism* based on the proposition that the world is a better place in which to live as a result of man's work.

This attitude contrasts with the traditional attitude of the Oriental cultures toward work. The oriental culture and the oriental religions tend to deny the effectiveness of human effort and human energy in making the world better. The Buddhist theory of reincarnation supposes that a person who does his duty in his present incarnation will lead a life of less toil in his next incarnation. Thus one works because of iron necessity, and one hopes to escape from work.

The Rise of a Productive, Affluent Society. In the 19th century the muscles of a man were important to the productivity of an economy. At that time it was calculated that an average man can do about 48-kilowatt-hours of useful work in a year. Then the various kinds of engines were created to supply energy, and now the electric energy alone generated in the United States is the equivalent of 85 men for every man, woman and child in the country.

Not only was energy supplied. Machines were created to do work more rapidly and with as much efficiency as men could do it. The man-hour productivity in 1960 was three times that of 1900, in the United States. The American people elected to produce more goods and many new products with this increasing productivity. At the same time they elected to shorten the work week from about 60 to about 40 hours.

Increased productivity showed its effects on the labor force first in agriculture, where the proportion of workers shrank rapidly to the present level of about 8 percent of the labor force. This started the migration from farm to city that has provided most of the new industrial workers since World War I. The manufacturing industry at first expanded to produce many new goods, but productivity increased even more rapidly. From 1950 to 1960 the quantity of manufactured goods increased nearly 50 percent, while the number of workers employed in manufacturing stayed constant. From now on, the number of production workers will decline. The General Electric Company increased its output by 8 percent from 1956 to 1959 and at the same time reduced its production workers by

25 percent. It has been predicted that factory workers will be as scarce in the year 2,000 as farm workers are today.

The emphasis in the affluent society has shifted from the production of goods to the distribution and consumption of goods. These are the problems today—how to distribute the goods that we produce in such volume, and how to consume this volume of goods.

We now employ 60 percent of the labor force in the United States to do work that is concerned with distribution and consumption of goods, whereas, in 1900, this proportion was 30 percent of the labor force. By increasing the proportions of jobs not directly involved in producing consumable goods, we have provided nearly full employment and have given people the purchasing power to consume an increasing volume of production.

The Crisis of Work. These devices to increase purchasing power and to spread it over the population have now met a crisis in which we are not certain that the system will work. Cybernation—the silent conquest[5]—has given us a heightened productivity, and we have been unable to maintain full employment. We now speak seriously of a permanent unemployment rate of 5 or 6 percent, and this does not include a large group of youth below 21 and mature people over 60 who are not in the labor market by the usual definition but would look for jobs if any were to be had.

In effect, through the operation of social security and of welfare projects, we now guarantee everyone a living, but we are not able to guarantee everyone a job who wants it. We are separating the right to an income from the right to work. It is no longer realistic to speak of a *right to work* as a right with which our society endows a person.

A person must *earn* the right to work. He must earn this by education and effort. The number of jobs which require little or no education is decreasing. Thus we are separating work from a necessary connection with subsistence and making a new necessary connection between work and education. The right to work is not a general right; it becomes available through the operation of the right to education.

Work is no longer an iron necessity for poor people. We have a class of poor people—sometimes called the Welfare Class—who do not have to work in order to live.

---

[5] Donald N. Michael, "Cybernation: The Silent Conquest." Santa Barbara California: Center for the Study of Democratic Institutions. 1962.

This process of reducing the opportunity to work seems almost certain to continue. There will be less work and more production, if present trends continue. The positive values of work will not be available to all people all of the time.

Man's Response. This poses one kind of problem for the individual, and another problem for society.

For the individual, increasingly, the problem is what to do with himself—how to spend his time.

For the society, the problem is how to distribute work and leisure—how long the work week, the work year, and the work life should be, for various kinds of people.

As a society and as individuals we are going to be working at these problems during the remainder of this century. The colleges are going to help people learn what to do with themselves. Adult education will turn increasingly toward activities and studies that are good for leisure time. Adult education will become more and more aimed at raising the general level of mass culture so that people get more of a variety of satisfactions. Leisure may be a curse or a blessing, depending largely on the influence that is exerted by a broadened and liberalized system of adult education.

III *METROPOLITANIZATION*

Not long ago an editor of a newspaper in the South presented his readers with the following little poem:

Changing Times

We live in a time
When cotton has gone west,
Cattle have gone east,
Yankees have gone south,
Negroes have gone north,
And we've all gone to town.

Now, 70 percent of our population live in places defined as urban by the census, and 65 percent of the population are clustered together in 212 Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas. The Big City is in a crisis—financial, political, social, and moral. With growing slums and a reduction of the average occupational level of its citizens, it is losing the middle classes to the suburbs. Vast sums of money are going into physical urban renewal, in an effort to make the city once more a place in which all kinds of people will live and raise their children.

The earlier term—urbanization—no longer describes the process that we are concerned with. It is not the growth of a city, but the development of a metropolitan area, on which our attention will be fixed during the remainder of the century.

The standard metropolitan statistical area, as defined by the Census Bureau, is a city of 50,000 or more with its surrounding county and any contiguous counties that are functionally bound to the major city.

During the decade from 1950 to 1960 the central cities of the country showed relatively small growth, and many of the larger cities actually lost population. Meanwhile the suburbs grew very rapidly, until by 1960 the population of suburban areas was practically equal to that of the central cities.

It is the metropolitan area—the central city and its suburbs—with which the new federal Department of Housing and Urban Development will be concerned. In his message to the Congress in which he proposed the new cabinet department, President Johnson defined the city as "the entire urban area—the central city and its suburbs." He said:[6]

> "Numbers alone do not make this an urban nation. Finance and culture, commerce and government make their home in the city and drew their vitality from it. Within the borders of our urban centers can be found the most impressive achievements of man's skill and the highest expressions of man's spirit, as well as the worst examples of degradation and cruelty and misery to be found in modern America.
>
> "The city is not an assembly of shops and buildings. It is not a collection of goods and services. It is a community for the enrichment of the life of man. It is a place for the satisfaction of man's most urgent needs and his highest aspirations. It is an instrument for the advance of civilization. Our task is to put the highest concerns of our people at the center of urban growth and activity. It is to create and preserve the sense of community with others which gives us significance and security, a sense of belonging and of sharing in the common life.
>
> "Aristotle said: 'Men come together in cities in order to live. They remain together in order to live the good life.'
>
> "The modern city can be the most ruthless enemy of the good life, or it can be its servant. The choice is up to this generation of Americans. For this is truly the time of decision for the American city."

---

[6] Lyndon B. Johnson, "Message from the President of the United States Relative to the Problems and Future of the Central City and its Suburbs." House of Representatives, 89th Congress, 1st Session, Document No. 99, Washington, D. C.; 1965.

During the period from 1925 to 1960 the metropolitan areas of the eastern and northern sections of the country became polarized, with people of high income and high educational level moving to the suburbs, while their places in the central city were taken by poorly-educated and low-income families. Thus, the educational and the economic level of the central city fell, while suburban levels rose. In the larger metropolitan areas a gulf separated the two parts, and neither showed an interest or a sense of unity with the other.

By the middle 1950's the people in charge of the destinies of the central cities found that they were in trouble. They began the processes of *urban renewal* in order to stem the decay and the downward movement of the central city. Urban renewal had two aims—to make living conditions for poor people better in the central cities, and to make the central city more attractive as a place to work and to live for all kinds of people.

A new balance between suburb and central city is now taking place. The economic and racial polarization between them has probably reached its maximum and is already receding. From now on it is likely that the suburbs and central cities will become more like one another, rather than more different from one another.

From now on, suburbs and central cities will increasingly recognize their similarity, and their common interest in cooperation. This will come soon in the more technological aspects and processes of the human enterprise, such as water supply, sewage disposal, streets, and fire protection. It has already come in the area of communication, with newspapers, radio and television serving the entire area.

Cooperation between suburbs and central city will come slowly and with more difficulty in the areas of government and education. These complex social systems are so entrenched in law and custom that they will be hard to change. For instance, the six counties around and including Detroit have more than 4 million inhabitants and will reach 5 million before 1970. In this metropolitan "community" there are 214 local governmental units, with 17 special districts and 159 school districts. The Detroit area will soon become one continuous community in the physical urban sense. It is already a community to the newspapers and television stations. How rapidly will it become one community in the governmental sense and the educational sense?

The first steps toward true metropolitan area cooperation are likely to be taken by volunteer and non-official groups which meet to study the problems of a metropolitan area and to plan for possible cooperation. A Metropolitan Area Council on Higher Education is an example. The new Aid to Higher Education Law will give a substantial push to cooperation in library and extension work by colleges in metropolitan areas.

Some form of Metropolitan Education Authority will come into existence as a means of correlating the work of the many school districts, of equalizing educational opportunity, and carrying on certain functions that should be conducted on an area-wide basis.

The metropolitan area is the natural unit for organizing and administering public higher education. Perhaps one community college will be sufficient for a small area, while the larger areas will have a system of community colleges, a teacher-training institution, and a public-supported university.

IV. *WORLD INTERDEPENDENCE AND COOPERATION*

The day of political and economic isolation for any nation is past. Vast areas of the world that in 1900 were known only as places for missionary efforts are now independent countries and co-members of the United Nations with the rich and powerful nations whose power and riches depend in part on their trade and their political cooperation with the have-not nations. Africa is no longer The Dark Continent; now it is the mother of new nations, which are slowly forming themselves into a United States of Central Africa which will soon rival Europe in economic and political power. South America has wakened from a century of stagnation into a period of economic growth and social revolution that will make it an economic rival of North America in a few decades, if it does not become an economic partner with North America.

The modern area of history is often said to have started in 1453, when the Turks took Constantinople and Western Europe took to the ocean and the building of overseas empires.

It seems probable that historians of the future will declare that this era closed about 1950, when the hegemony of white men came to an end. During these five centuries the West Europeans and the North Americans dominated the world through their superior technology applied to material production and to warfare. The Caucasian race was clearly superior to the other races, on these terms.

Only at the beginning of the 20th century did a colored nation (Japan) defeat a white nation in war and become a world power. The Chinese gradually awakened and in the second half of the century have become the great question mark around which the speculations and the strategies of the white nations turn. India during the 20th century established herself as a moral force in the parliament of nations. The once Dark Continent of Africa developed after World War II a set of independent nations which slowly learned to live and work together toward the goal of bringing enormous economic and political influence to bear on the rest of the world. Only the indigenous peoples of South, Central and North America, among the colored peoples of the world, did not rise to power during the 20th century. They were too much integrated into a white-dominated society, or too much subordinated, or too much isolated, to be able to assert themselves politically as a nation or nations of colored people.

Thus, the 20th century marks the close of the white man's dominion. In the 21st century, *if color means anything at all,* the white man will have to come to terms with his inferiority in numbers and in political and economic power.

The growing interdependence of nations has been matched by a growing movement toward cooperation and understanding among the religions of the world. The Roman Catholic Church has moved toward closer cooperation with other Christian Churches since 1962, when Pope John convened the Vatican Ecumenical Council, and set up the Vatican Secretariat for Christian Unity.

The World Council of Churches has gained strength rapidly since World War II. Extension of the ecumenical movement to cover all world religions is only a matter of time. The leaders of the Christian Churches plan to encourage a world-wide dialogue among religions that will strengthen them as religious systems and at the same time contribute to greater understanding. Others, following the lead of Arnold Toynbee, boldly predict the coming of a single world religion with branches that fit the religious traditions of various parts of the world.

In any case, we see the nations and the churches—earlier the exponents of war and dissension in the world—seeking now to promote peace and goodwill.

The many complexities of international and interchurch cooperation require understanding by citizens and lay people at a level of sophistication which makes this more a function of college and adult education than one of elementary and secondary education, though the foundations of a world-view must be built through the schools.

V. *SOCIAL INTEGRATION*

Within every democratic society there is an unending process of social integration which does two things:

1. It brings people of diverse economic circumstances and different nationality and racial groups together into a common social, economic, and political life.

2. It maintains and increases the opportunity of individuals to move from one income level and one occupational group to another in which they prefer to live.

In the long run, a democratic, urban and industrial society finds its major problem to be that of integrating its members across socio-economic lines. For the creation and maintenance of a pluralistic democracy, the ethnic and religious groups do not pose a great problem, compared with that of maintaining cooperation and freedom and movement between socio-economic groups.

However, the immediate and short-run problem in the United States is that of integrating the Negro group into the structure of society on equal terms with the Caucasians.

The Negro Revolution, as it has come to be called, is anything but a revolution as people have understood that term in the past. The Negro revolution seeks to join, not destroy, the American way of life.

The causes of the Negro Revolution are:

Urbanization. During the past half century the Negro has become urbanized. That is, while in 1910 seventy-three percent of Negroes were living in rural or semirural conditions, 73 percent in 1960 were living in towns and cities of 2,500 or more. Half of the Negroes in 1960 were living in cities of 50 thousand or more. Under rural conditions most Negroes were farm-hands or sharecroppers, getting a bare subsistence from the soil. Under urban conditions most Negroes are factory or service workers, many are members of labor unions, many are voters, their incomes are vastly greater than when they lived in rural conditions, and they are in a position to influence history.

Migration to the North. All of the major northern and western cities show sharp increases in Negro population since 1910, with the 1950-1960 decade showing a 50 to 90 percent increase. Since 1960 the northward and westward migration has continued, but with some abatement.

Negro Leadership. Organizations to support the Negro Revolution have grown in strength and in number since World War II. Principal pre-war organizations were the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People (NAACP) and the Urban League.

Later came CORE, the Congress of Racial Equality, and the Southern Christian Leadership Conference, organized by Martin Luther King. These are not aligned with any political party and do not have any political program beyond that of getting civic and economic and educational opportunities for Negroes.

The Problem of the "Negro Role." Full participation in the American way of life is more difficult for the Negro to attain than it has been for other ethnic groups because the dominant white group has discriminated against him by reason of his skin color. Even where the ethnic immigrant was not highly visible, he often had to wait and work his way into the American social structure. The Irish, Swedes, Poles and Italians have had this experience. In the middle of the 19th century the Irish immigrants were called "shanty Irish" and advertisements offering jobs often carried the cryptic phrase NINA (No Irish Need Apply.). Later the Swedish immigrants were called "dumb Swedes," and after they had moved up the socio-economic ladder the "Polacks" took their places as objects of discrimination.

The stereotyped expression applied to an ethnic group means that a certain social role has been ascribed to the group. People in this group are expected to fit the stereotype, and they sometimes do, since there is a strong social pressure to behave in accordance with a role that has been assigned. Therefore the role of a "lazy nigger" is imposed on many Negroes, who sometimes live up to it. If a Negro is supposed to be lazy and shiftless, he may find it easy to behave this way as a child and as a man. The one positive role that is increasingly ascribed to Negro youth is that of an athlete. They are expected to be especially good at basketball, football, boxing, and running. This sometimes helps them in school, but does not help them to become scholars.

The basic obstacle to the Negro's full participation in the American way of life is his assignment to the Negro role. The role must be changed to one which connotes success in urban industrial society. The Negro role must become one that encourages Negro children to work hard in school, to set high educational and vocational goals for themselves, and to become confident of their ability to do anything that those of other color can do.

The role of a lazy, shiftless, and dull person has been fostered by racial segregation and by economic and political and social discrimination against Negroes. The positive role that must come requires integration in economic life, political life, and especially in the schools.

Already large numbers of Negro children are successfully learning the new role. The growing numbers of Negro middle-class people prove this statement. The growing numbers of Negro college graduates, of Negro business men and professional workers including school teachers, show that the positive role is being acquired. As the numbers of these people grow, the old stereotype of the lazy, shiftless Negro will disappear, just as the unfavorable stereotypes of other ethnic groups have disappeared.

Educational Implications. The battleground of the Negro Revolution is in the public schools, and is becoming an accepted fact.

While there is little controversy about Negro pupils attending integrated colleges, there is much to be done to extend opportunity for higher education to more Negro youth and thus to open up to them the occupations which will become part of a new and positive Negro role. Public community colleges are the main instruments of educational opportunity for Negro youth.

Conclusions

The five social processes which have been delineated are producing new material and social setting for Americans with such speed that the educational institutions can hardly keep abreast of them. Yet the achievement of American social goals requires the [illegible] of higher education and of adult education. Public-supported education must be the principal instrument, and the community college, working with young people and adults, has a major and essential function.

3

Implications of Social and Cultural Change for Community College Administration

by

LELAND L. MEDSKER

Implications of Social and Cultural Change For Junior College Administration

Professor Leland L. Medsker, University of California, Berkeley

Professor Havighurst has left little doubt that the lives of all Americans are being affected drastically by the many social and cultural developments in society. The changes he discussed are as exciting as they are sobering. They are exciting because in general they suggest that we live in an age in which the individual should be able to free himself from provincialism and thus to live and work in an atmosphere conducive to self-development. They are sobering because they foretell a long period during which the problems of adjustment will inevitably be severe.

It would be presumptuous to augment the list of changes enumerated by Mr. Havighurst. I should like, however, to add one trend which is not of the same magnitude as those already before us but which is important for our discussion. It is the changing concept of power and authority in society which is especially evident in the academic community where faculty authority is emerging and where there is a growing recognition of student rights and responsibilities. I cite the change here and will return to it later.

As we consider the implications of the many societal changes for community college administration, I propose to divide the discussion into two parts, namely, the implications for administration

cussion into two parts, namely, the implications for administration

per se and those for administrators as individuals.

Implications for Administration

Perhaps we should begin by asking whether there is any special reason to assume that the community college *should* be responsive to social and cultural change. Such a question may be answered easily in light of the avowed philosophy of the community college. Integrated in the community as it is and dedicated to the notion that its services extend to a wide spectrum of the population, it is the one social agency which could hardly escape being affected even if it wished to. Thus, as deep, underlying forces shake the very tenents of a society that comparatively speaking has not until recently been subject to great change, this type of institution is inextricably caught up in the change. As a result, it may be assumed that the role of the community college will soon be very different than it was only a few short years ago.

If this be so, what are the implications for administration? I should like to suggest that they fall in at least three categories: (1) A need for re-examination of institutional goals; (2) A need for re-examination of the college program; and (3) A need for re-examination of relationships within and without the organization.

Of all the responsibilities which face the community college today, the examination of its purposes, aims, and objectives is paramount. Selznick and others contend that agreement on institutional goals is the first requisite of leadership. In general, the community colleges have over the years been articulate about their mission. Moreover, the various states and individual communities have been reasonably clear on what they expected of their community colleges and have asked them to assume a multiplicity of functions. In recent years, however, some countervailing forces have led to questions about the avowed philosophy of the community college. Mounting enrollment pressures, together with the increasing identification of the community college with higher education, are resulting in concern about such matters as the open-door enrollment policy, the comprehensive program, and about academic standards that are geared to the nature of a non-selective student body. But even if community college goals, as originally conceived, were not being tested, there would still be a question of whether this institution is sufficiently oriented to the big tasks which confront it.

You may ask, what *does* confront it? To such a query I would respond that the forces mentioned by Professor Havighurst suggest a society which is greatly in need of an abundance of educational services and opportunities. Admittedly, our schools and colleges are not the only agencies which must help individuals fulfill their role in a world beset with such problems as the big city, automation, and social integration. Other agencies, including the church, community organizations, and industry must bear their respective responsibilities. Among the educational institutions, the elementary and secondary schools will be important, but it is unlikely that they can do little more than try to do better that which they are already doing. The four-year colleges will be overwhelmed with the problems of numbers, of degree programs, and of research.

It is inevitable that millions of youth will be emerging from American high schools, either as graduates or as previous dropouts too old to return to the secondary school, who will not find an easy access to any kind of further training yet who must live in a world which places a premium on some type of advanced training. Some of these youth will always face difficulty in obtaining permanent employment yet somehow they must be shown how to make the most of life in a situation where economic independence becomes less common than it has ever been. There will also be an increasing number of adults who desire to return to school—many of them on a full-time basis—either for retraining in skills or for more general purposes.

While in most states the public community college has long been committed to an open door policy, there are signs that faculty members, and in some cases administrators, are beginning to question whether it should continue to accept all who wish to enter or whether, like its four-year counterparts, it should become selective at the point of entrance.

This is neither the time nor the place to debate the subject of the open door policy. Those who make judgments on its viability may find it necessary to balance some of the underlying social forces against certain other such forces. Population growth and resulting enrollment pressure might argue for some restriction of admission on the grounds of feasibility alone. This idea would gain favor with some on the grounds that all other institutions are moving toward selectivity—often in quite drastic steps—and that it is not appropriate for the junior college, now recognized as a part of higher education, with many baccalaureate-degree-bound students directed to it, to dilute its student body with those having low levels of aptitude, interests and motivations. Moreover, some will ask whether the state can really afford to educate everybody who wishes to continue beyond high school. The answer to these questions must be governed in part by many of the other forces at work, particularly the onslaught of automation and the increasing complexity of man's civic and personal responsibilities. Indeed, those who argue for a partial closing of the door must be prepared to list alternatives. Should certain high school graduates and older youth simply be denied access to higher education or should some other institution be designed for them? If new and different types of institutions are designed, what is likely to be their impact on the present system of junior colleges?

The primary concern, it seems to me, is that each community college make a new assessment of its role. What are its fundamental purposes? Is it still committed to the open door? Do the changes in American society suggest new functions for it? Is the need for standard lower division college work so great as to suggest that the community college direct its efforts almost entirely toward the end of serving the increasing number of students who will be diverted to it for the first two years of the baccalaureate program?

There is evidence that community colleges are doing a certain amount of vacillating among objectives, never being quite sure about the values they place on the various alternatives but with a tendency to gravitate toward a standard lower division college. Now the picture becomes even more confusing with the many new types of students knocking at its door.

This situation suggests the obligation which administrators of community colleges have for bringing about a fresh new look at the goals of the institution. This is perhaps not only the most important task they have but also one of the most difficult. To a considerable extent, the task will have to be undertaken within the context of statewide plans and policies.

At the institutional level, one of the important groups to be concerned is the faculty without whose deliberation and concensus there can be no effective setting of goals. Thus, administration must become the catalytic agent for effecting agreement on goals. It must at the same time, however, be more than an arbitrator of conflicting points of view. It must assume responsibility for making sure that decisions are made with full knowledge about and within the context of the changing nature of society, the alternatives open to the community college, and the consequences of the final decisions. Obviously, those charged with administration have no God-given powers to perceive or proclaim. It is only that it is their responsibility to bring all the facts to bear on the problem and to give impetus to the decision-making process.

A second implication of the many developing social forces for community college administration is that it must re-evaluate its program. In a sense, this is merely an extension of the idea that the purposes of the community college should be re-examined, since what the community college does and the people it serves should determine to a large measure the program it offers. Thus, the program must be consonant with the institution's clientele and objectives. To subscribe to the principle of the open door policy on the one hand and to ignore the capacities and degree of motivation of a large proportion of students entering under such a policy on the other, is to ignore the principle in fact. Many community colleges have striven to develop a good program of vocational-technical education of a high level—a program which normally requires a high degree of academic aptitude. Unfortunately, too many community colleges have failed to "reach" too many students in the lower levels of ability and even many of higher ability who come from disadvantaged and unmotivated homes. The high attrition rates in community colleges reflect this situation in part.

Still another problem—and one very difficult to solve—is the type of occupational programs which community colleges should offer at *any* level. Indeed, the onslaught of automation and cybernation causes one to wonder whether training for many positions may become obsolete almost before it is completed. The situation is made even more difficult by the fact that there is as yet no very good way to project job obsolescence nor are there many agencies that are devoting their time to the study of the world of work in the future.

One of the greatest challenges that will come to the community college administration in the next five years will be that of determining a suitable program for the new types of students who will enroll, to say nothing of improving the services to the students who have constituted its clientele all along but whose needs will now change as a result of the many societal forces exerted on them. To date, neither the community college curriculum nor the techniques of instruction have changed materially. Innovations are few and scattered and seem more often to be made as a novelty or as a means of reducing staff time or space needs rather than as experimental measures to capture the imagination of students.

The same challenge will exist as far as new directions in continuing education are concerned. The community college has long claimed adult education as one of its goals, sometimes performing the function admirably and sometimes much less so. The task in this area will be tremendous and will demand the best thinking of administrators.

The responsibility of administration in re-examining the educational program is best fulfilled by generating the initiative for change. It should be the electrical system. It should not become so occupied with administrative detail that it overlooks the most important responsibility of the institution, namely, the program.

But merely re-examining the curricular and instructional aspects of the college is not sufficient. Another most important service of the community college in the years to come, as now, is its student personnel program.

With all the responsibilities which face the community college today, it is difficult to comprehend how anything less than an all-out effort to upgrade its counseling and other student services will suffice. Of course, many community colleges have already gone a long way in this respect. However, the recent survey made by Raines, *et al.* of student personnel practices across the country, revealed some startling shortcomings. The following findings from the study based on certain criteria used by the researchers are indeed sobering:

1. Three-fourths of the community colleges have inadequate student personnel programs.
2. Adequate guidance and counseling is provided in less than one-half of the colleges.
3. Adequate provision of occupational information is extremely rare in community colleges.
4. Coordinative, evaluative, and upgrading functions are the least effectively provided of all functions.
5. Very few community colleges have the resources to serve as community guidance centers.
6. Student personnel directors lack the professional training that would enhance program development.
7. Current staffing patterns are grossly inadequate both quantitatively and qualitatively.

I repeat these statements here because, if they are true and if a student body as diverse as that found in a community college is not well served by a strong counseling program and other means of personal assistance, the fate of the community college is in jeopardy.

There is little doubt that community college administration has a big planning task before it. In my judgment, Harry Gideonse spoke of this task most articulately in his opening address at the annual meeting of the American Council on Education earlier this month. He said:

> It is an insight as old as Seneca that if a man does not know to what port he is sailing, no wind is favorable. If we are to build our youth *for* the future, and of we are to build our future *with* our youth, we need first of all a set of dependable blue-prints. Building is a purposeful activity. No architect builds just for the fun of building. You must tell him what you are building for—and this is where our problem of building a future for our youth begins. Nostalgic prescriptions based upon beautiful rhetoric which usually begins with the words, "when I was young," are simply irrelevant. We are not dealing with people who *once* were young. We are dealing with people who are young *now*—and who will be young in the next ten or twenty years. There is only one thing that is certainly predictable about the circumstances of their lives. The pace of social and technical change which is already difficult to digest today will sharpen and intensify. The competitive and

conflicting pressures which beat about our heads will not diminish: they will grow in number and intensity.

I turn now to a third major point, namely, that new societal forces suggest a re-examination of administrative relationships and organizational structure. Let us consider first the probable changes within the college itself. Many forces are at work to produce a new concept of college and university administration. For some years we have witnessed a trend toward what is often referred to as the "collegial" pattern of organization which is characterized in part by a flat horizontal pattern of authority instead of the hierarchial pyramid type that, until recently at least, was a characteristic of organizations in general. Implicit in this trend was the growth of faculty authority. We should not imply, of course, that faculty involvement in decision-making is entirely a new phenomenon because to a degree it has been a characteristic of major universities for a long time. However, perhaps as a result of the increasing tendency in society to reorganize the dignity and responsibility of the individual, there is now a developing concept that faculties in all types of educational institutions, particularly at the post-secondary level, should be involved in decision-making. The thrust in this direction at the two-year college level has been aided by the fact that the community college is increasingly recognized as a segment of higher education as opposed to secondary education. The concept of faculty authority has spread so rapidly that in California legislation provides that where faculties so desire, there shall be a faculty senate in each junior college.

There are indications that in the future, management in general will become more decentralized and that shared decisions will be the basis of administration. Thus, the concepts of such notions as "the hierarchy," "span of control," and "line and staff" will become less important. This implies considerable change for community college administration—a change which hopefully can be made by administrators now in positions and for which administrative training programs can prepare people for the future.

Community colleges are also at the point where they must involve the student in planning. The college community is naturally more sensitive to this since the activities at Berkeley and elsewhere last year. There is evidence that in most institutions students are and will continue to be concerned with the manner in which the college attempts to serve them. They will be concerned about the freedom to express themselves and to participate in affairs related to current social issues; about the quality of teaching and student policies; and about the anonymity which tends to cloak the individual in huge institutions. They will want to hear and be heard. Thus one of the new responsibilities of administration is to make all this possible and to see that it is done with grace and goodwill.

Still another impact to be considered is that which technology will have on the internal administration of the community college. It is inevitable that widespread use will be made of electronic and mechanical devices for business management, campus planning, instruction, and institutional research. Although in our larger institutions the age of electronic devices has already brought many changes, we are only on the threshhold of their application to administration. They will facilitate many tasks which otherwise could not be undertaken. They will require ingenuity in the conception of their use. They will also affect relationships between administrator and other staff members, since the staff must not only accept such devices but be willing to utilize their productivity.

Community college administrator must always look out as well as in. As one notes many of the changes discussed by Professor Havighurst, their potential impact on the community college administrator becomes obvious. Consider, for example, the administrator in the metropolitan center where the community college is one of the most important media for educational opportunity. Here, he is not only expected, but has the obligation to be a leader. This [illegible] as well. His role is not merely to assist his college in serving the city, but also in helping the city interpret its educational and cultural needs.

The outward view of administrators must, of course, extend beyond national limits. As Mr. Havighurst said, the complexities of international cooperation can best be understood at the college level. The community college has an important anchor in this field, because in so many nations mid-level institutions are being established which stem from social forces similar to the ones which have given rise to the community college in this country.

Implications for Administrators

Most of this discussion has related to the implications of change for administration, although these may easily be translated into implications for those who administer. There are some generalizations which may be drawn for those who are to hold positions of administrative leadership in the community colleges of the future. May I suggest four.

1. The community college administrator must be broadly trained. He must be able to understand the complexities of the changing world and to translate them into the obligations of educational institutions such as the community college. For this a good background in the behavioral sciences is indispensable. It is important that his preparation concentrate more on an understanding of the role of educational institutions in society and how they function and less on the techniques of administration.
2. The administrator must be able to play a leadership role. His big task is to assist others in interpreting needs, in visualizing the broad obligations of the community college, and in translating ideas into action. He must himself be a doer, but he must also be a catalyst, both within the institution and outside it.
3. The administrator must be highly effective in his interpersonal relations. The trend in administration toward decentralization, shared decision-making, and negotiation places a premium upon his ability to achieve autonomy but to avoid polarization, to effect a cohesive whole out of many parts, and to accomplish through stimulation what his predecessor probably would have attempted through authority.
4. The administrator must develop other leaders. A good administrator may do this automatically, but there is merit in conscious effort toward this end. The many factors affecting the lives of Americans are resulting in new and larger community colleges each year. These institutions must be staffed with high-quality administrators. Existing institutions will constitute the major source of supply, but the quality must be improved by design rather than left to chance by default.

But whether we speak of administration or administrators, the central theme is the same: The forces at work in American society place an exceedingly heavy responsibility on the community college. Whether it will be able to discharge this responsibility will depend upon how well it is administered. And how sad would be the story in the history of education should it ever be recorded that the institution failed due to lack of adequate leadership.

4

The Urbanization of American Society

by

JOHN BEBOUT

The Urbanization of American Society

John E. Bebout,
Director
Urban Studies Center, Rutgers–The State University

"Urban Problems" has become one of the most prolific conversation pieces among socially conscious citizens. Its nearest competitors among domestic topics are the not unrelated matters of poverty and civil rights. That this should be so marked a very great and quite recent change in American life and thought, as almost anyone with a memory for serious talk going back before World War II can testify. There have been cities of sorts within the present domain of the United States since colony days but until quite recently, the United States has been primarily a rural nation and until even more recently, most Americans have maintained an essentially rustic frame of mind. A very few of the leaders of the country at the time of the Revolution, Hamilton and Samuel Adams, for example, might have qualified as urban men; but most of them like Washington and Jefferson, were essentially rural people, if not actual frontiersmen. I have no statistics on the point, but casual observation leads me to the conclusion that a majority of the people making the most important decisions, public and private, in the United States today have rural backgrounds and once thought of themselves as country boys or girls.

Like many other necessary words, the word *urban* and its derivatives, *urbanization* and *urbanism* often confuse conversation, as much as they inform it. They certainly mean quite different things to different people. Even the Census Bureau has had a hard time making up its mind how to divide the people of the United States between rural and urban. Thus, according to a definition used through the 1940 census, the United States became a predominantly urban country when the Bureau found 51% of the people living in urban areas in 1920. Under this definition urban territory was defined as incorporated places of over twenty-five hundred population. Since 1950, the Census has included so-called unincorporated territories in standard metropolitan areas, now known as Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas.

There is a growing tendency to think of urban America simply as that part to be found in the Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas, which can roughly be defined as urban or metropolitan regions which contain a central city of fifty thousand population.

or two closely related contiguous cities (for example, Champagne and Urbana, Illinois) with a combined population of at least fifty thousand, and the surrounding or contiguous substantially urbanized county or counties. Thus, the Buffalo Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area embraces Erie and Niagara Counties. If earlier Census figures are adjusted to match the current definition of the Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area, they show that the United States became predominantly a metropolitan nation in 1940 when fifty-one percent of the people were found to be living in what the Census would now define as metropolitan areas.

It is possible to pick flaws in any statistical definition of urban or metropolitan areas. Thus it can be argued that some people living in the Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas are still rural, some of them being what we country folk used to call "dirt," as distinguished from "gentleman" farmers. It can also be argued that some more or less isolated places of more than twenty-five hundred population, primarily serving an agricultural hinterland, are more rustic than urban in basic attitudes. Be that as it may, the trend of population growth and movement since 1940 is such that no one can possibly doubt that the United States is now not only an urban, but also a metropolitan nation. The 1960 Census shows that, of about 180 million people, more than 125 million, or just under seventy percent, live in urban places while approximately 113 million or sixty-three percent live in metropolitan areas. Population projections point to a continued although no longer accelerating urban trend. Thus, it is anticipated that by 1985, thre will be over 250 million people in the United States and that eighty percent of them will be concentrated in metropolitan areas. The strength of the trend toward those areas is indicated by the estimate that seventy-eight percent of the population increase since 1960 is in the Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas.

It is impossible in a short paper to deal systematically either with the history or with the present structure and functioning of the United States as an urban society. It is equally unnecessary to attempt either a rigorous definition of the subject or a clear distinction between urbanization and such closely related phenomena as industrialization and bureaucratization. If the word "urban" is confusing, even controversial, in some contexts, we, nevertheless, have come by a fairly satisfactory rough and ready understanding of what we mean when we say that we are living in an essentially urban society. Implicit in the concept is recognition that our's is a "modern" industrial society, dynamically charged by a rapidly developing techology. When we use the word "urban", however, we are thinking primarily of certain aspects of that society, particularly those having to do with the way people concentrate or cluster in different areas for purposes of living, working, and engaging in social and intellectual intercourse. This paper deals with certain ways in which increasing numbers of Americans and some of their basic activities are distributed and mixed among recognized urban concentrations. Its primary concern is with some of the frictions and problems generated by the impact of changing aspects of the urban scene on the older institutions and ideas with which people attempt to cope with new situations.

The principal aspects of the nation's urban configuration that will be considered, however lightly, are:

(1) Urban-rural relationships and distinctions.
(2) Central city-suburban differences.
(3) The national and regional distribution of urban areas.
(4) Intra-state urban patterns.

These aspects are chosen partly because, together, they contribute to a fairly rounded, however gross, picture of urban America today; but mainly because they all affect the nature of our urban problems and the means available for solving them.

It is not possible cleanly to filter out strictly urban problems from the virtually limitless universe of human problems. However, if we think of urban problems as those posed or shaped by the conjunction of distinctive and largely new urban conditions with the existing institutional and ideological apparatus through which we seek to solve common problems, we can discern two related clusters of issues that, for the present at least, can be identified with the results of urbanization. These are:

(1) *Environmental and physical*—impact of urban development on basic resources like land, air, water, and living organisms and the use of those resources to meet such needs as living and working space, transportation, and production of goods essential to urban society.
(2) *Social and human*—effects of diverse and changing mixes of people and activities in different segments of the urban-metropolitan scene.

Under the impact of problems in these areas on the existing resource and institutional base, first physical and more recently social planning have become household words if not yet highly effective operating realities. It is significant that both kinds of planning are essentially the products of the new urban era. They were virtually unheard of, except among utopians, in an earlier age. The emergence of planning as a proper social concern and public function is a reflection of the fact that man, or at least man in anything but a condition of stasis that is virtually impossible under present conditions, is a problem-solving animal. If American man has somewhat belatedly discovered the urban society, it is because it has forced him to face up to some new and challenging problems.

Considering the fact that the transition from rural to urban has occurred during the lifetime of most of the adults now living, and considering its galloping pace, it is no wonder that there has been a decided lag in intellectual, emotional and institutional adjustment to the altered nature of the American scene. It may be hard for young people to realize that in the early years of the century there were more horse-drawn than motor-driven vehicles on the streets of Buffalo. By the same token, it is hard for older people fully to keep up with the implications of the coming of the automobile, to say nothing of the jet airplane. In any case, it is important for everyone, young and old, to understand that the urbanization of the United States, a phenomenon that is more and more being matched throughout the world, is essentially machine made, the product of applied science. The one machine more than any other that has brought this about is the internal combustion engine, especially as it has powered automobiles and farm machinery. This engine not only made a massive urban development possible, it has, to a large extent, determined the nature and many of the details of that development, especially its almost formless lateral spread.

The pace and magnitude of the urban trend would not have been nearly so great if we had not learned to produce more food for more people on less land with less and less man power down on the farm. The result is that, although we tend to think of farming and "the country" as going together, only about one quarter of the people now living in so-called rural areas live on farms, and the number and percentage of farmers is declining rapidly. Between 1960 and 1964 it is estimated that the rural farm population declined from about 15.6 million to 12.9 million, a decrease of about twenty percent. Along with the increase in productivity of farm labor has come an increase in corporate, as against family, farming and a narrowing of the social, cultural and economic distance between the agricultural and other segments of the society. Revolutions in transportation, communication and "home-making" have brought everyone closer to the city and have brought many urban amenities to people wherever they live. As factories move into the fields and fields come more and more to be managed like factories, traditional ideas about the distinction between urban and rural become less and less relevant to reality. In short, while American society is becoming quantitatively more and more urban, it is everywhere becoming qualitatively more and more *urbane,* if we may use the word *urbane* to denote qualities hitherto pertaining mainly to the urban condition.

At the same time, the society shows an increasing concern for preserving certain aspects of the rural scene because it is more and more understood that a great urban society needs open space and opportunities for all to enjoy and commune with nature. It is even becoming understood that a massive urban society has a special need to avoid such disruption of the ecology of the planet as to make the place uninhabitable for anybody. Hence, an increasingly important goal of an increasingly urban society is preservation of the countryside. Long ago it was observed that it was the voters of the Bronx who were most consistent defenders of the provision in the New York Constitution that requires that the Adirondack and Catskill State Forests shall be kept "forever wild." This is because those areas are deemed to be as important adjuncts of the City as Central Park itself. Another illustration of the way in which urban men are assimilating rural land to the urban system is the increase in the number of two-home families, families with urban houses or apartments who acquire a second home "in the country." Thus Vermont, the only state north and east of West Virginia that is still listed by the Census as rural, is more and more becoming inhabited for part of the year by city people who have acquired Vermont farms as occasional refuges from the city. A result of all of these trends is that the old urban-rural dichotomy is becoming less and less important. The way in which urban settlements are distributed around the country and the differentiations and relationships within and among those settlements are much more significant for the future than the age old and somewhat synthetic distinction between the country bumpkin and the city slicker.

Aside from social and economic distinctions which exist in greater or less degree everywhere, one of the oldest divisions in urban society is between city and suburb, between the older, generally more thickly settled central areas, and the newer more sparsely settled but nevertheless urban outer or fringe areas. Until fairly recent times, the city was the area of prestige, the home and the chosen instrument of the rich, the powerful and the more highly cultured. Contrast this with the current stereotype of the old, decaying central city and the new, shiny suburbs, the preferred abiding places of those who can afford the choice. Whereas people used to be proud to claim to be city dwellers, many persons rightly listed by the Census as urban, who happen to live in suburbs, will hotly deny that they are urban.

In order to lay the basis for some understanding of the variety of conditions, tensions, and problems that characterize urban-metropolitan United States, it is necessary to resort again to some statistics. Unless especially trained, most of us tend to be bemused by a parade of numbers. However, in an increasingly interdependent world, we must resort a great deal to numbers to convey essential information; and we must learn to react emotionally as well as intellectually to numbers, if the society is to act effectively on problems of interdependence.

While urban America has been growing at an explosive rate since the Second World War, the old central cities have in most cases grown very little, except where they were able to annex fringe territories; and, in many cases, have actually declined in population. Between 1950 and 1960 the population within Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas grew at about twice the rate of the rest of the country. Within those areas, the population *outside the central cities,* increased forty-seven percent, while that *in* those cities increased only eleven percent. The same growth pattern continues with the result that the urbanization of the country means, in terms of traditional thinking, its suburbanization. In short, the suburban or fringe areas are growing rapidly while central cities and many rural and small town communities are hardly growing at all and some are undergoing an absolute, as well as a relative, decline in population.

Before examining in more detail the divisions within metropolitan communities and how they affect the urban condition and crucial urban problems, we need to see how urban America is distributed over the face of the land. When one thinks of the phenomenal concentrations in the Northeast, around the Great Lakes and the Gulf of Mexico and in the Southwest, in contrast to the great open spaces over which one flies across the continent, one tends to think of urbanization as a highly regionalized phenomenon. This impression has a good deal of validity but it needs correction. The fact is that urbanization has, in one way or another, reached into all sections of the country. The Census now lists only one region, the eastern south central, containing Kentucky, Tennessee, Alabama and Mississippi, as being predominantly rural; and it finds only eleven states with rural majorities; Vermont, North Dakota, South Dakota, West Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Kentucky, Mississippi, Arkansas, Idaho and Alaska. Anyone familiar with the concerns of state and local policy makers and educators in a number of these states, Kentucky and North Carolina, for example, knows that they are heavily preoccupied with urban problems and with the accommodation of the increasing urbanization that they anticipate. The wide distribution of the urban condition is more impressively indicated by the fact that there are only three states that do not contain all or part of a Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area. These states are Alaska, Vermont, and Wyoming. Alaska, it should be noted, is in this group only because of the arbitrary effects of definition. If the City of Anchorage were, under the easy annexation provision of the Alaska constitution, to annex just a few of the people living in the surrounding built-up fringe area, it would go over the fifty thousand mark and be the center of a recognized metropolitan area, considerably larger than a number of those in the older states.

Another fact about the national pattern of urban settlement that needs to be examined is the way in which it has developed in ribbons or strips, sometimes extending hundreds of miles across several states. The best advertised of these strips, often spoken of as megalopolis, a name attached to it by Jean Gottman, can be traced on the map from Portsmouth, New Hampshire, or Portland, Maine, as far south as Norfolk, Virginia. There are a number of such developments along the Great Lakes, and it takes little imagination to see these running into each other from New York State to Wisconsin across northwestern Pennsylvania, northern Ohio, southern Michigan and northern Indiana and Illinois. One can see a spur of this region running along the Western side of Pennsylvania and into West Virginia. As has already been indicated, urban development along the Gulf Coast from Florida to Texas, though not yet continuous, gives every indication that it may become so. The other most massive urban developments are, of course, in California, in the Los Angeles and San Francisco areas. Still others may be discerned in a number of other regions, including central North Carolina, central and southwestern Ohio and northern Kentucky, and in the Northwest. Even the fairly widely separated cities along the eastern slope of the Rockies, from Wyoming to New Mexico, can be thought of as developing a distinctive urban region of their own. Each of these urban regions contain several Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas, with their innumerable local jurisdictions. Most of them are interstate.

The way in which metropolitan development is running together can be illustrated by a look at the Buffalo metropolitan area and its neighbors. Buffalo can be seen as holding down the western end of an almost continuous strip of standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas along the Thruway and the old Erie Canal. Let us trace this strip from east to west.

The Albany-Schenectady-Troy Area (composed of the four counties of Albany, Rensselaer, Schenectady and Saratoga) in 1960 contained over 650 thousand people. The Utica-Rome Area (Oneida and Herkimer Counties) contained 330 thousand people. The contiguous Syracuse Area (Onondaga, Madison, and Oswego Counties) contained 560 thousand. And the Rochester Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area (Monroe County) held over 580 thousand, while the Buffalo Area (Erie County and Niagara County) contained over one million three-hundred thousand. Westward from Buffalo, the Erie, Pennsylvania, Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area, contains over 200 thousand. This and the Canadian cities, of which Hamilton, Ontario, is the largest, are logical and closely related extensions of this huge urban strip, which on the American side alone, contains nearly three and three-quarter million people.

Both the distribution and spread of urban settlements and the diversification within them have, as we shall see, important implications for concerned citizens and responsible policy makers in many areas of the public, private and voluntary sectors of the society. In view of the nature of our governmental system, which places a primary responsibility on the states for the government of local communities and for the solution of community related problems, it is important to have some understanding of the urban pattern, state by state. It has already been pointed out that statistically most states are now urban, and that virtually all of them have urban developments which are important enough to be of substantial state-wide concern. There was a day in a number of states when a single city was large enough and powerful enough to come very close to dominating the state; and there were people who predicted that many states might come under the control of a single city, or a big city coalition or alliance. The more urban the several states become, the less likely is a large city control of state governments to be realized. Through 1950, the city of New York did contain a majority of the population of the State of New York, but by 1960 New York City's share had dropped to 46.4 percent and that share is continuing to drop rapidly. Anyone familiar with New York urban politics knows that despite some common interests, large cities from New York to Buffalo do not easily join hands for political control. The same truth can be illustrated by Pennsylvania, Ohio, California and many other states. The big city component of any state is fractionated, and is becoming weaker as it becomes, compared with the suburban and urban fringe component, a smaller element of the state as a whole. Only ten states now have a city with fifteen percent or more of the state's total population. In New Jersey, the most urban state in the Union, the six largest cities together contain only nineteen percent of the people, and like the large cities in New York, they are scattered all the way across the state.

All forms of life are dangerous. Man is the most dangerous form of all because only man commands the utimate power to destory the planet. Contrariwise, only man has the capacity consciously to manage the environment so as to prolong and improve the conditions of life. The concentration of rapidly expanding populations in urban areas has, for the first time in history, forced man to face up to his ultimate potential for destruction or creation. So far, he has not faced up too impressively, but he has made a start. Here we can note only a few major problems stemming from the confrontation of urban man and his environment and suggest how the structure of urban America affects the way in which old institutions must be shaped and used, if man is to solve the problems, not be "dissolved" by them.

The current water shortage in the Northeast is a good case in point. Water supply used to be a strictly individual or family matter. In time it came to be a matter of municipal concern in areas too built up to permit everybody to obtain water from his own brook, spring or well. It is now apparent that the spreading of urban concentrations over vast intermunicipal, interstate and international regions, with the competition for water leading cities to reach out across two or more watersheds, the problem of water supply can be solved only on a regional basis and only through the participation of all levels of government, under some discipline imposed by no lesser authority than that of the nation itself. The same can be said of the related problem of water pollution and of the not dissimilar problems of the pollution of land and air by wastes and by chemicals that are used primarily for supposedly desirable purposes but which, in the process, may have highly dangerous side effectts. Neither the flow of water above the ground or under the ground, nor the sweep of the winds across land or sea respects municipal, state or national boundaries. An automobile, a brushfire or an open hearth, no matter where it is, makes its contribution to the accumulated pall of carbon dioxide in the upper atmosphere which is surely changing the climate of the earth. Atomic waste wherever generated, once released, may contribute to the radioactive component of the polar ice pack. Obviously it will take not just local but national and world strategies to monitor and control such largely city-generated alterations in the planetary environment.

When it comes to the man-made facilities deemed necessary or desirable for urban living, we find that an increasing number of them can neither be built nor maintained and managed on a strictly local basis. Consequently, the United States Government is investing in experimental work to develop a high speed ground transportation system to connect the principal centers in the east coast megalopolis from Boston to Washington. Whereas once the New York Subway and elevated railway system in itself constituted a fairly effective metropolitan transportation system, it is now evident that a metropolitan system for the New York area cannot be had without the collaboration of three states and the United States Government. Electronic communication by telegraph, telephone, radio, television and man-made satellites long ago got out of the hands of local communities and local authorities. The remaining local telephone systems tend to be increasingly frustrating to their customers, even though most of them are linked with the Bell System.

About the turn of the century, states began to get seriously into the highway business, first with very modest subventions for county and local roads, and then with the beginning of state highway systems. In President Eisenhower's administration, Uncle Sam moved massively to develop a national-state highway system because, extensive as state activities in the field had been, even with some federal support, they failed miserably to keep up with the automobile, and they left too many bottlenecks, particularly on national cross country routes and at the entrances to big cities. Theoretically, the states could have come closer to meeting the nation's highway needs. They were handicapped by two circumstances: (1) their inability in some cases, their unwillingness in others, to tax themselves heavily enough to meet expanding highway needs; (2) the unreadiness of most of them, with legislatures heavily overweighted on the rural side, to spend state money for highways in urban areas which, according to the old tradition, were rich and more than able to take care of themselves. A third difficulty should probably be noted. Development of a national highway system on the basis of state action alone would have involved an intricate system of interstate agreements, the difficulty of achieving which can be imagined, if one looks at a conflict between local interests and the state highway department over one road alignment within a state.

Land use controls have traditionally been left in local hands and have, on the whole, been fairly ineffective, even within a single city or municipality. One reason for this is the pressure of the regional market on muncipalities that are in competition with one another for a strong tax base. States that have not weakened their own powers through constitutional limitation are reluctant to use their power to override entrenched local interests, except occasionally in connection with the location of a state highway or other facility. Too often, since highway location has not generally been related to any regional or state plan, there being none, it is determined on narrow grounds that may only intensify the disorder in land use and development. In consequence, the national government is getting more and more involved in the effort to introduce order and reason into urban development. Beginning with national support for local planning provided by Section 701 of the Housing Act of 1954, the United States has moved a long way toward a requirement that metropolitan planning be a prerequisite for the location of all kinds of national, state and local facilities. It is gradually coming through to policy makers that the United States, either on its own or in collaboration with state and local governments, is responsible for a great variety of facilities and programs which, planned and developed in some kind of harmony, could have a great deal to do with the future shape of urban America. These programs include, but are not limited to, transportation by air, rail and sea; control of pollution of water and air, and even of strips of land along the highways; hospital and other health facilities; housing and urban renewal projects; and educational facilities of various kinds and levels.

All of this does not mean that there is no role for local governments, however fractionated, or for the state. It does mean that in the matter of physical facilities and of programs affecting the physical environment, urban America must more and more expect to be served and governed by a collaborative effort of national, state and local governments. The factors previously set forth regarding the distribution of urban settlement throughout the country should be enough to make this crystal clear. The smoothness and efficiency with which this collaboration proceeds and the amount and nature of local participation in it will depend partly on the level of national statesmanship and partly on the capacity of people organized in state and local communities to contribute vision and initiative, not mere parochial obstructionism to the effort.

The preceding paragraphs have dealt primarily with the elements of the physical planning and development of the urban future. It should go without saying that physical planning is for people, whether it is for people as they use transportation facilities, live in houses, go to hospitals and clinics, enjoy park and recreation areas or simply drink, breathe, eat and share with others the joys and risks of the environment.

Another cluster of human needs and activities that are affected and sometimes compounded by the nature of urban settlement are primarily social and cultural. These are sometimes thought of as including health, which has already been dealt with, living conditions, which are related in part to housing, and a host of other needs or interests generally lumped under the broad heads of welfare, education and employment.

Essentially the same conditions that have made it necessary to deal with the physical aspects of the city on a much broader base than the single municipality make it equally necessary to do this with respect to the human service needs of urban society. Unfortunately for people living in America today, the problem of meeting these needs has been greatly complicated by what can be described as the ghettoization of race and poverty. There is no need to repeat the statistics that demonstrate that poverty, inferior education, disrupted or nonexistent families, diseases of various kinds, mental illness, malnutrition, delinquency, unemployment or underemployment, and various other socially pathological conditions are heavily concentrated in central cities, and more especially in decaying segments of those cities. Whereas at the turn of the century, most Negroes were rural people, now the vast majority of them are city people and constitute a very large proportion of the poorest and most unfortunate people in the country.

The cities in which these conditions are concentrated are quite incapable of dealing with them on the basis of their existing jurisdictions or resources. The very concentration of these problems in the city, many of them exported from rural America, reduces the city's fiscal and personal resources for meeting them. The exclusiveness of the suburbs enforced in varying degrees by law, by the market and by organized snobbery, makes it impossible for the cities to export their problems to other areas, at the same time that it intensifies the hopelessness of the unfortunate and reduces the likelihood of their responding to well-meaning efforts to increase what the sociologists call their "upward mobility."

For the same reason that the states were not able by themselves to deal with such physical problems as highway development or pollution control, they have proved equally unable by themselves to mount an effective attack on these primarily human problems of the older cities and some of the older suburbs into which the problems have spilled. The United States government began to respond to local based social needs in the Depression. As a result, we have permanent and expanding programs in the areas of social security, housing, urban renewal and employment. It is only during the present decade that, in the Civil Rights Act, in the Economic Opportunities Act and in a growing list of acts relating to education, the United States Government has begun to show a comprehensive and hopefully effective concern for urban problems of this nature. All of these programs provide national leadership and investment in collaborative efforts involving national, state and local governments and private agencies and interests of various kinds. The war on poverty typifies this method. The war on poverty like the other programs is concerned with rural as well as urban areas. But urban people should, in the long run, be benefited by any effective attack on rural poverty, ignorance or deprivation, since rural lacks, untreated at home, tend to end up in the city.

The United States did not become a truly urban nation simply as a result of the location in urban areas of fifty-one percent, or even seventy percent of its people. If it is today an urban nation, it is because it has come to think in terms of urban reality and is beginning to act nationally on crucial urban problems with intelligence and energy.

One reason why national policy has been urbanized more rapidly than policy in most of the states is to be found in the compositions of the national and state legislatures. Members of the United States Senate are elected from their states at large. Since an overwhelming majority of the states are predominantly urban, the senators are under the necessity of paying serious attention to the over-all urban needs and problems of their states. This is true even of senators from states with urban minorities, because they must cater for urban as well as rural votes. Consequently, it is not surprising that some of the most effective Senate leadership for urban oriented legislation has come from states like Alabama, Maine and Tennessee, that are at least border-line in their urban-rural divisions. Even under re-apportionment, state legislatures are likely to be made up of persons representing small segments of larger urban communities, a condition which will continue to emphasize narrow rather than broad urban interests. Re-apportionment of state legislatures will help states rise to urban statesmanship only if the urban people who live outside the central cities send representatives who will assume a generous attitude toward the needs of the whole urban society, for it is the suburbs, not the old cities, that will benefit from re-apportionment. It is no accident that there are more urban minded governors than legislatures, just as it is no accident that it is Lyndon Johnson of Texas who has been leading Congress further and faster down the urban road than it could possibly have moved under its own steam.

In any event, it is certain that the more comprehensive and less parochial view of urban America that is possible from the national Capital will always be needed for leadership and the fair allocation of resources to meet problems that cannot be contained or fully managed in the patches set apart by local and state boundaries. Only the nation can tap the necessary fiscal and intellectual resources on a sufficient scale and deploy them over areas large enough to cope with many of the problems we have discussed. With government as with individuals, competence often begets energy, while weakness induces lethargy.

Fortunately, since complete centralization in a country so vast and varied would be a horror, it is a firm national policy to govern the United States so far as possible through state and local institutions. Deficiencies in state and local ability to tax a fair share of the wealth of the country to meet their respective needs are more and more being made up by national grants in support of locally administered programs. Just as important as money for the maintenance of constructive local initiative and influence, is the supply of leadership and knowledge. The English have recently complained of a "brain drain" of scientists attracted by the more glittering opportunities they see on this side of the Atlantic. State and local governments and even local voluntary institutions suffer a similar "brain drain" on account of the higher pay and supposedly wider opportunities offered by large private business and by the national government. If the national policy in favor of local self-government is to be successful, it will be necessary to counteract this "brain drain."

Fortunately some of the newer national programs in the areas of research and education are calculated not only to improve the skill and prospects of the underprivileged, but also to help those who have the capacity to advance as far as possible in the university. It is to be hoped that the new Department of Housing and Urban Development will become the sponsor of an extensive program of research and training directed toward increasing the competence and the knowledge base of those concerned with urban government. The Housing Act of 1964 included provision for a small beginning in this direction, although, so far, no money has been appropriated to carry it out.

But back of a well-trained and well-informed leadership there must be a well-educated citizenry. Thomas Jefferson, in a rural age, understood this and argued for a comprehensive educational system to this end. We may, under the impact of urban reality, be on the threshold of answering Jefferson's call. Responsible self-government is possible only if large numbers of people have the understanding and compassion to which a sound education must make a large contribution.

Something in the nature of a model for urban America has been developed under the impetus of the Land Grant College Act of 1862 for rural America. The combination of academic education, applied research, and extension of knowledge throughout the rural community by means of cooperative extension is being studied in a number of universities, and in Washington, for its applicability on the urban scene. The differences between rural and urban America are such that it would be unwise to try to follow the old model in detail. There are elements in the model, however, that deserve special attention. One is the intimate relationship developed between education, research and extension. Another is the acceptance of the community service role of the university and of the university's responsibility for leadership in developing knowledge and competence which might be put to work, partly through other educational institutions and partly through contact between university personnel and ordinary citizens in the community.

The President and the Congress have, in the last two years, challenged the institutions of higher learning to play a major role in helping their country come to terms in a civilized and progressive manner with the urban condition which now characterizes the nation. The ability of those institutions to meet the challenge will have a great deal to do with the future of the Great Society and of responsible self-government in that society.

BIBLIOGRAPHICAL NOTE

Historical figures, covering urbanization from 1800 through 1920 were derived from *Historical Statistics of the United States*, Series A 1-3, pp. 7, 14.

Figures covering 1940 through July, 1965, and population projections were obtained from *Current Population Reports*, p-20, #131 and p-25, #316.

Adjusted "numbers in urban areas" obtained from Sirjamaki, *The Sociology of Cities*, p. 123 which was adapted from Bogue, Donald J., *Population Growth in Standard Metropolitan Areas, 1900-1950*, Washington: Housing and Home Finance Agency, 1954, pp. 10, 11, 13, 28.

Generalizations regarding comparisons between urban and rural areas, ethnic compositions of cities and other demographic data obtained from selected *Current Population Reports* and *Statistical Abstracts.*

The discussion of urban regions is based in part on two articles by Charlton F. Chute which appeared in the *National Municipal Review* in June and July, 1956.

Some of the facts on the effect of suburban growth on the control of state legislatures are derived from "Suburbia Takes Over," an article by William J. D. Boyd in the June 1965 *National Civic Review.*

5

Implications of Urbanization for Community College Administration

by

JOSEPH P. COSAND

Implications of Urbanization For Community College Administration

Joseph P. Cosand, Director
The Junior College District, St. Louis, Missouri

During the past few years, and especially the past year, the citizens of this country are awakening to the fact that our country is becoming urbanized at an extremely rapid rate. There are many surveys now available which show the population trends, and they all point in the same direction.

We no longer can afford to put our heads in the sand and refuse to acknowledge problems this rapid urbanization is creating in the United States, and for that matter, throughout he world. I suppose that the communication media have stimulated this movement by showing what the cities have to offer, and now these same media are showing the disparity in living conditions of those who live in the urban areas, with dramatic and often traumatic results.

We educators are at fault for not having been more astute in seeing the trends that started some years ago. It appears now that for the most part we are reacting to increased pressures and therefore acting from expediency. The public schools, from kindergarten through 12th grade, have become particularly vulnerable, and administrators and faculty alike are beset with problems which appear to be almost unsolvable. The magazines and newspapers, radio and television — together — are exploiting this news story, and I have yet to see or read of any urban area which has really come up with a solution for the problems created by the rapid urbanization of the community, and in particular for the change in the inner-city.

The changes in the inter-city must be faced. We cannot continue to have these centers increase in educational needs and decrease in assessed valuation. These opposite directions may lead to violence, for with our communication media showing the public the advantages the great middle class has achieved in America, those citizens unable to reach similar achievements are not going to stand by and be satisfied with inadequate services, be they housing, education, police, fire, or any others which cities usually offer.

We have seen the problems facing education through the 12th grade, and we have seen the failure of Boards of Trustees and administrators as they have attempted to handle these problems, again mainly from expediency. Perhaps we have an opportunity in the community junior college to profit from these mistakes and to establish institutions which truly serve both the youth and adults of the community. Our stated philosophy and objectives are great throughout the community junior college movement, and we say we are "Democracy's college", but are we in reality?

To develop a community junior college in an increasingly urbanized area, the Board, administration and teaching staff must—above all else—understand the population the college is serving. We all give lip service to this, but it is fundamental that we understand the different parochialisms within the community and really attempt to get a picture of the toal populaion. Afer all, representatives from each of these parochial groups will attend our institutions and sit in our classes; and if we, as administrators and Board members, are not aware of what these people need and want, we will fail just as surely as many of the other public schools have failed. We cannot continue to sit in our offices and create curricula which are based entirely on the middle class population from which most of us came, and in which most of us socialize.

The administration of each of these community junior colleges must understand that these institutions serve both the youth and adults of the community, and in so doing become centers of hope where both occupational and cultural levels can be raised. The administration must take the leadership in bringing before the Board and staff an understanding of the heterogeneity of these youth and adults with respect to their background of age, education, and experience; the mixture of races and cultures which form the student population, and the economic backgrounds of the various parochial groups. How can we begin to expect our institutions to do the job that they say they will do with the open door philosophy unless these facts are known. We provide equal access on paper, and with our open door; but once the student enters the doors, does he really have equal access if we don't understand his particular needs, and therefore if we don't develop curricula which can assist students who have various potentials.

Many of the students coming into these large urban junior colleges are going to be filled with anxieties for many different reasons. A study we ran in St. Louis showed that the anxieties among our students were far higher than those of students at Washington University where enrollments are carefully screened. It was pointed out that the anxieties of the students of one of our campuses were mainly due to parental pressures. These students came from the upper middle class families where parents, for status purposes, wanted their children to have college diplomas. However, at the campus in the city itself, we found that the students from our minority groups showed similar high anxieties, but again for different reasons. In most cases, these students were the first from their families to go on beyond high school, and they wanted to succeed desperately. In competition, however, they found that their educational backgrounds were deficient, and they were unable to compete in the traditional curricula. Both groups of students develop from these anxieties a defensive attitude which leads on to hostility.

We will not be able to reach our goals unless we have curricula in which students may enroll where they can better themselves and thus be able to more fully develop their potentials. All of us, I am sure, will agree that we cannot continue to see the split between the affluent and disadvantaged become greater. We cannot afford to continue producing illiterates and parasites, for our democratic form of government depends completely upon an informed citizenry. Illiterates, incompetants, those without hope, are fodder for dictators – be they left or right.

May I quote from William Drummond, "He that will not reason is a bigot; he that cannot reason is a fool; he that dares not reason is a slave".

We, as administrators, saying throughout the community that the high school diploma is no longer enough, must look to the post high school programs we have in our community colleges, and see that they are serving truly the population they are committed to serve.

The following specific administrative responsibilities are worth noting:

Location of Campus

Most of the urban community colleges are going to become multi-campus institutions. This will mean locating campuses throughout the community where they can be within easy commuter distance for both day and evening students. If these campuses are not carefully analyzed as to location, we are undoubtedly going to get into the same problem that faces the elementary and high schools – defacto segregation. I see no reason why any multi-campus junior college should establish artificial boundary lines indicating which campus a student might attend. I am convinced that all students within the total District must have the right to attend whichever junior college he or she feels is best suited for his or her particular needs.

I am also convinced no one of these campuses, or if there is only a single campus, should be located in the area which would cause it to become segregated within a very short time. There are community junior colleges which have tended to become segregated; and when this happens, the reputations of these institutions are damaged — falsely — but they are damaged. This causes the students to be looked down upon by a large percentage of the citizens, and prevents the institution from realizing its true potential. I believe the location of the campus is so important that even though the property purchased to avoid defacto segregation is much more costly, this cost in the initial purchase of the property is justified.

Increased Emphasis on the Total Comprehensive Program.

We all agree, as administrators, that there are four major functions to the comprehensive community junior college:

a. Academic Transfer
b. Technical
c. Remedial
d. Continuing Education

We also, if we are honest, will agree that when funds become short, that the only part of the program which seems to be protected from curtailment is the academic-transfer program. This is one of the failures of the junior college movement in America.

Administrators and Board members alike have not resisted some of these pressures, and have permitted the technical programs, remedial programs, and continuing education programs to become obsolete, inactive, and down-graded in the eyes of the students. The urban junior college must at all costs protect all four of these objectives. The administrators, Board members, and staff must emphasize the quality of all four programs, and the fact that in no instance is a student marking time. The status of the technical programs must be upgraded, and the quality of the remedial programs must permit those who complete such prorams to enter either into a technical program or an academic transfer program.

If the technical programs are to gain in status, the administration must seek the assistance of lay citizens who will serve on advisory committees to evaluate constantly each of the technical programs. In addition, the administrators must establish working relationships with our high schools which maintain vocational programs so that there is no unjustified repetition, but rather a feeling of continuance where the graduate from the high school can move on to the more sophisticated technical programs, if he is qualified to do so.

This, I believe, is one of the biggest weaknesses in the technical-vocational programs of the urban areas. There is very little communication between the high schools and the junior colleges. Both groups are defensive and both groups have so far, in general, failed to understand one another, and to see what a great job they really could do if they began to serve the student, rather than themselves.

Naturally, for the objectives stated above to be realized, each of the comprehensive community junior colleges must establish a stronger program in counseling and guidance. This, to me, is the capstone of the whole junior college movement. Without professional counseling, students are not going to be able to match their interest and abilities and thus maximize their opportunity to realize their potential. I don't see how a community junior college can do its job at all unless it has at least one professional counselor for every 300-350 students. In the inner-city area where many entering students are deprived of strong educational backgrounds, the ratio should probably be one counselor to 200 students.

Staffing the Comprehensive Junior College

Again, may I say how much many of us depend upon the written philosophy and objectives in our literature, and from this life in a world of make believe too much of the time. For the administration to do its job, all members must be dedicated to and completely committed to the philosophy as stated. From this strength the administration must be sure that the Board of Trustees members have a similar commitment; and that each member of the teaching staff, and for that matter — if possible — of the classified staff, have the same commitment.

I am appalled at the lack of commitment of staff to the stated objectives in community junior colleges throughout the United States. I am appalled when I hear administrators, or faculty members, or librarians, or counselors, make statements which indicate that they go along with the technical, or remedial, or continuing education programs only because they have to. I am appalled when I hear these people say that the academic-transfer program is really the important program, and the others deserve less attention. I am appalled when I hear these people apologize for their technical, remedial, or adult programs, and with little effort to hide their feelings indicate that they wish they didn't have to administer or teach in such programs.

I am appalled when I see administrators and Boards curtail the resources for all programs except the academic-transfer programs which inevitably, as the status program, is the one which must get the most attention. I am not saying that the others should be given preference, but I am saying that there should be a balance of energy and expenditure allotted throughout the total educational program of the comprehensive community junior college. The administration is responsible for establishing this climate and for constantly bringing to the attention of the Board and faculty the importance of each segment. Through this climate developed by administration, will come the climate within the staff, and within the individual classroom.

In order to cope with the problems facing the urban student, administrators, and faculty members alike must find new methods of presenting material, must develop new curricula, and must build new courses. This kind of research is essential if we are to do our job.

I compare it with the research and development programs of business and industry. They are continuously seeking new ways to do things better in order to turn out a better product and make more money. We have a more important reason for this research and development, and it is that we are dealing with the ability and potentials of human beings. The great resources we have in the United States are our youth and adults. Our youth must be able to be educated for tomorrow's society; and our adults must be permitted to continue their education to that they can also live and compete in tomorrow's society.

When knowledge is doubling every ten or fifteen years, we can no longer sit by and say that education is only for the young people. We cannot afford, again in our type of government, to have obsolete adults who are doing the voting, and therefore establishing the laws for governing our society. These people must be aware of the unbelievable changes which are taking place, and this can only be done through self-education in the home, or more formalized education in institutions such as the community junior colleges. Our position is enviable in that we will be located as community centers reaching out to serve those who can get to us with relative ease. If need be, we should establish classes in areas apart from our major institutions. This is being done in many communities, and has brought great results to the community itself.

Educating a Board of Trustees

Previous mention has been made of the importance of team work between the three groups making up a community college—the Board, the administration, and the faculty, along with all of the assistance, of couse, which is provided by the classified employees. No administration can really provide strong leadership unless the Board of Trustees is informed at all times, and is completely immersed in the philosophy of the institution. I consider this, as President of The Junior College District of St. Louis — St. Louis County, Missouri, to be my main responsibility. The Board must be immersed in the philosophy of the comprehensive community junior college to be able, as a group and as individuals, to speak on this topic before any group within the community.

The Board must also, before the faculty of the institution, be outspoken in its support and prove to the faculty that there is absolutely no weakness or bias. The Board must do a total job, and I believe strongly that the job is just as important philosophically as it is financially. Members of our Board of Trustees can speak with authority on any aspect of our educational program, and have appeared on radio, television, and before numerous public meetings. They give complete and absolute support of the philosophy of the comprehensive program. I am confident that this kind of support has been instrumental in helping our District develop with the rapidity it has during the past three years.

Bricks and Mortar

Fifty-one junior colleges are starting in the United States this year, which now brings the total to 780. Many of these, and many of the well-established junior colleges, will be housed in inadequate facilities. The administration of a college must take the leadership to be sure that such inadequacies are not long-range and therefore mitigate against the acceptability of the institution by the community. The leadership must emphasize, and must strive for, facilities which students and parents alike can be proud to recognize as their community junior college. We are beyond the day when we have to be the appendage to the rest of the public school system. We are beyond the day when we have to accept the discarded elementary high school on a *long-range* basis.

I am not saying we should not accept such a facility on a short-term basis, for this is the only way many junior colleges can get started in order to meet the demanding needs of the community.

In the urban areas where these institutions are going to become large, we as administrators must strive in every way possible to be sure that the monolithic institutions do not impersonalize the educational program. We must be sure that the teachers and students alike retain their identity as individuals, and in addition, that a close personal student-teacher relationship is always encouraged throughout the climate of personal interest. The community college, as a community center, must place strong emphasis on personal contact through its teacher-counselor-student relationship.

The buildings must not appear to be impersonal corridors and cold classrooms which are indicative of many of our airports. Provisions must be made for high space utilization in the classroom and laboratory, but at the same time, there must be plenty of service space available, such as that which is provided in libraries, student centers, gymnasiums, etc. We can build these institutions at less cost than the traditional colleges which generally have a very low utilization rate of facilities. We can provide offices for our faculty where they can counsel with students. We can have faculty laboratory prep rooms where faculty members can feel that they are encouraged to do educational research. We can do these extra things if we utilize our classrooms and laboratories on a maximum basis, and also build rooms of varying sizes so that we can approach 100 percent seat utilization.

The libraries, or Instructional Resources Center, must become increasingly important to the community college where the students will be encouraged to work in individual study, as is the case in more and more of the liberal arts colleges. The faculty, Board, administration, and students must have pride in their educational program, and must have pride in the appearance of their campus. This of course leads to pride in oneself. This has been a fundamental factor in the development of our country.

Continuous Evaluation.

All of the above points are well and good, but without a continuous evaluation of the changes in population, changes in business and industrial needs, and changes in faculty, the comprehensive community junior college will become obsolete in its curricular offerings. The biases which will develop without a continuous evaluation, where all are aware of the beginning of such biases, can easily destroy the strengths of this truly American institution. It is fundamentally important that through the student personnel services area counselors, faculty, administration, and the Board, be kept aware of changes in the makeup of the student population with respect to abilities, age, race, socio-economic backgrounds, and other factors. This requires a careful analysis, at least once a year, of the student population, both youth and adults, and it further requires that this information be made available to all concerned within the structure of the Junior College District.

Advisory committees, working with the administration and faculty, must evaluate the educational programs, especially those in the technical education areas, and point out to the staff changes which may be occurring within the business and industrial community.

Occasionally the administration, if it feels there have been rather drastic changes taking place, should conduct a survey in a sufficiently short time so that the results will be accurate, and not obsolete when published.

Perhaps one of the most difficult tasks facing the administration of any junior college, or particularly, the urban junior college, is that of assessing faculty attitudes towards the various curricula, and towards individual courses. I have found from past experience that this change of attitude is a rather insidious thing, and many times has gone much further than was realized. In general, the change in attitude is a growing antagonism towards the technical and remedial student, and a desire to teach only those classes where students have been screened for enrollment in the more difficult subject offerings.

This same problem is true in the four-year colleges where, for example, the English teachers wish to teach only upper division, and no freshman courses. Faculty members must be able, for example within the Mathematics Department in the community college, to give just as much support to our remedial courses in math as to a course in differential equations. It is just as important for the faculty to dedicate as much, if not more, time to the teaching of communication courses for technical students, as to an English Literature course for sophomore students. Perhaps this evaluation of the total education program of the community needs, of the population, and of the faculty, is the single, most important, responsibility the administration should assume.

The Evolving Community College Center

I mentioned earlier the importance of continuing education in today's world. One out of four of the adults in Santa Barbara, California, attended during any one year the Santa Barbara City College, which is a two-year community junior college. As president of this institution for four years, I saw what such an institution can do for all adults of the community, be they in their 20's or in their 60's. We maintained a Senior Citizen Center downtown near where many of the older people lived, and we developed courses which were tailormade for these people. These were not hobby courses, but they were courses which helped these people live a richer life.

I believe those community junior colleges which will accept this responsibility will find that the entire community benefits, that it is truly a program for civic betterment, as well as self-betterment. Communities can no longer afford to say that once a person has completed his formal education, we should no longer worry about his growth. We read constantly about the increased logevity of life, and now we are even reading that perhaps people in general will live more than 100 years. If these things do come to pass, then the problem becomes intensified.

The community junior college has an obligation to meet the needs of the community it serves.

Grayson Kirk stated, "Our greatest obligation to our children is to prepare them to understand and to deal effectively with the world in which *they* will live, and not with the world we have known, or the world we would prefer to have."

I would like to, in closing, add to his quote my saying that this obligation extends not only to our children, but to the adults of the community who establish the climates in which our young people will develop their futures.

6

New Developments in Economics of Education

by

WERNER Z. HIRSCH

New Developments in Economics of Education

Professor Werner Z. Hirsch
University of California, Los Angeles

INTRODUCTION

Economics is concerned with allocation of scarce resources among competing claims. It is from this viewpoint that economists can look at some of the fundamental questions of education. Among these questions are what kind of education should be offered? For how many students? By how many teachers and supporting personnel, with what background and training? Using what facilities? At what locations? At what cost? How is the necessary money to be raised?

While all these are important questions, economists have so far shown interest in only a limited number of them, and mainly in recent years. We will review here some recent research into the economics of education, then use some economic analysis to help evaluate a proposal for universal junior college training.

AN OVERVIEW OF RECENT RESEARCH

Economic aspects of education that have commanded the attention of researchers in recent years range from school taxation, intergovernmental fiscal relations, and issues of efficiency, to tools for aiding analysis and decision-making. Among the latter, three appear particularly promising; systems analysis, benefit-cost analysis, and program budgeting. These subjects and tools will be reviewed, and benefit-cost analysis will be applied to the example of universal junior college education.

Financial Support

There is a long-standing concern among economists about the raising of funds for schools. The overall state of knowledge is well summarized by Jesse Burkhead in his 1963 "State and Local Taxes for Public Education." (5) Harold M. Groves, C. Harry Kahn (11) and Dick Netzer (33) have studied the elasticity of the property tax, but the administrative problems of this tax have been of relatively little interest to economists. Economists have been concerned with income and sales taxation, potential major sources of school funds. Keith Butters (6) has studied the effects of taxation on individuals' investment capabilities and policies, and George F. Break (3) has raised the question of to what extent income taxes reduce work incentive. John F. Due (9) has made careful studies of the sales taxation and its consequences.

Since the effects of education are not confined by geographic boundaries, i.e., widespread spatial benefit spillovers exist, and because income redistribution considerations are important, local schools have received increasing amounts of funds from high levels of government. They have mainly taken the form of grants-in-aid. Walter W. Heller (15) has discussed the responsibility of the Federal Government in the support of schools. James M. Buchanan (4) has considered the resource allocation effects of federal grants. However, most of the education research on intergovernmental fiscal relations has been carried out by non-economists, such as R. L. Johns and Edgar L. Morphet (21), H. Thomas James (20), Erick Lindman (27), and Paul R. Mort (31).

In recent years economists have shown interest in the special problems of funding schools in a manner that is both adequate and fair. The question of the impact of changing local economic conditions on school finances has been raised. Input-output analysis has been used to assess the impact of industrialization or the fiscal health of a school system (18). (Contrary to the common belief, only a select group of industries improve the health of a district.) I. M. Labovitz (25) has studied public schools affected by the location of federal activities and the Federal Government's support program for operations and construction.

Costs

The question of whether public school consolidation could reduce costs, and thus make available greater amounts of money to the schools, has been raised by Nels W. Hanson (13) and Werner Z. Hirsch (16). Empirical studies of one metropolitan area by Hirsch could not detect significant economies of scale. Hanson detected economies of scale for school districts of up to 50,000 students, with diseconomies beyond that size. However, he did not adjust for quality factors. Each study involved the derivation of empirical cost functions for education. From these studies the conclusion can be drawn that while consolidation of small school districts might have cost advantages, large-scale consolidation is likely to prove a detriment.

One particularly important cost factor has been investigated in detail. Kershaw and McKean (24) have considered the supply responses and school costs of alternative salary schedules for teachers.

In another study William G. Bowen (2) has examined salary scales at the university level for the arts (including the social sciences), sciences, and technology, and the implications of the existing salary structure in Britain for educational policy.

Analytic Techniques

In the hope of bringing about greater efficiency in education, the use of systems analysis and program budgeting are being explored. System analysis of education has been proposed as a means to help assess the efficiency of alternative input combinations, e.g., teachers, equipment, etc., for achieving output goals. This analytical method identifies the costs of varying educational techniques and factor relations, as part of the total education and organization process, rather than through a limited study of specific isolated variations. Kershaw and McKean (23) in 1959 opened up this field which, because of its complexity, has made slow progress. More recently, program budgeting for education decisions has been attempted in one instance (17) for the Federal Government and in another for universities (38). This technique organizes budgetary information in terms of intermediate or end products rather than a conventional input identification. The advantages of program budgeting lie in the aid they give the decision-maker who is evaluating the alternative program structures, by taking explicitly into account the long-run, full cost implications. Program budgeting can go a long way toward tying together many aspects of educational administration that concern the economists, in that it can relate not only inputs to outputs, but can further relate educational programs to their fiscal support. With education financed by every level of government, and diverse revenue sources being used by these governments, constructive policy with specific goal-orientations can be frustrated by the lack of a clear view of the educational enterprise. Program budgeting can provide this view.

Benefit-cost analysis is closely related to program budgeting. In considering the difficult task of measuring educational benefits, we might want to separate between what education can be expected to do for the individual and what it can be expected to do for society.

With few exceptions (35), economists have paid little attention to the fundamental unit in the educational structure: the private individual or household. Recently, estimates have been made of the value of education to the individual. Lifetime earnings have been computed by sex, race, residence, and occupation and discounted at various rates (12, 29, 37). A study of the professions has considered the effects of restrictive entry practices on the supply and incomes of individuals (10), but the effects of scholarships and other incentive devices, on changes of occupation, and on individual retraining decisions are not known.

Economists have directed much of their attention to the effects of education upon society (26). After decades of reluctance on the part of economists to consider investment in human capital, reports by Edward Denison (7, 8) and Theodore Schultz (34, 35), pointing to education as a major factor in the growth of real income, have lead to major studies by Gary Becker (1) and Fritz Machlup (28) of the role of knowledge and education in its broadest sense in terms of economic theory and the empirical record. Denison, for example, finds that between 1929 and 1957, 23 percent of the growth in the real national income of the United States could be ascribed to education, and 18 percent of the growth in output per unit of input to the advance in knowledge. This latter classification includes the contributions of research and development, perhaps education's most dynamic consequence.

Machlup has argued that from the point of view of resource allocation, all R & D activities should be considered as investments in new knowledge. With formal education, on-the-job training (30), and other means of transmitting existing knowledge considered as investment, the addition of R & D activities raises to at least $50 billion the annual value of resources devoted to the creation and dissemination of knowledge in our society. The contribution of knowledge, the education industry in particular, to economic growth has been investigated, as noted, but research has not been undertaken to relate education to economic flexibility; i.e., the ability of a nation or region to adjust to secular change.

Economists have increasingly used variants of benefit-cost analysis to appraise education's influence on the resource allocation efficiency and equity of income distribution patterns. This method focuses on the resources drawn away from alternative uses for employment in education, and the additions to social product which result from education. Benefits have been narrowly defined as the direct return of increments in earnings realized by the student, and broadly to include the increases in output realized by *all* persons, the student included, whose ability to perform marketable tasks has been augmented. Burton Weisbrod considers benefits that are residence-or employment-related (36). Those benefits accruing to others than the educated student are termed spillovers, and are related to the general economic concern with externalities. Other economists have considered the geographic spillovers of both education's cost and benefits, and have examined the implications of their findings for decision making on the local level and for equity considerations of federal policy-makers (19). Of interest here is the possibility of overinvestment in education by students (or their families) who do not bear the entire cost of that education, and the possibilities of underinvestment by sections of the country that consider the out-migration of students as a blow to spatially fixed interests, e.g., real estate owners.

As can be seen from this survey of research in the economics of education, concern with primary and secondary education has dominated the field. Little research has been carried out on the economics of higher education. Perhaps the outstanding contributions are the volumes on *Financing Higher Education 1960-1970,* edited by Dexter Keezer (22), *Economics of Higher Education,* edited by Selma Mushkin (32), and *Economic Aspects of Higher Education,* edited by Seymour Harris (14). While I do not profess to know the reasons for this lack of interest in higher education, one thought comes to my mind. Could it be that we who are part of the higher education system are reluctant to look into our own problems and needs?

The two-year junior college, a quite young institution, has received little if any detailed examination by economists. Yet, for two reasons I would expect that the junior college can become an important and profitable area of investigation. Its financing resembles to no small extent that of primary and secondary schools on the one hand, and universities on the other. But more importantly, most of those who will study and possibly criticize two-year colleges are likely to be members of universities, thus not working on and facing up to the problems of their own institutions.

ANALYSIS OF UNIVERSAL JUNIOR COLLEGE EDUCATION

The Proposal

It seems appropriate to see if we can apply some of the tools developed by economists in recent years to evaluate an interesting proposal about two-year junior colleges. Specifically we will analyze the 1964 report of the Educational Policy Commission of the National Education Association of the United States and the American Association of School Administrators calling for universal junior college education.[1] In many respects, we are more concerned with demonstrating the application of economic research techniques to two-year college education, than with policy findings.

---

[1] The Educational Policies Commission, *Universal Opportunity for Education Beyond the High School,* (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1964), p. 36.

Let us review some of the key provisions of the Educational Policies Commission report. It proclaimed:

> The nation's goal of universal educational opportunity must be expanded to include at least two further years of education, open to any high school graduate, and designed to move each student toward intellectual freedom.[2]

The report recommended two additional years of liberal education, closely integrated with the high school.[3] It recognized that the cost of education will remain a severe obstacle to many students attending two years of junior college. "Even tuition-free education costs a considerable sum, in many cases more than the student is willing or able to bear. If he lives at home, his expenses may seem heavy to him; away from home they may seem impossible."[4] Therefore it concluded that "the clear requirement is that the thirteenth and fourteenth years of education in public colleges be free of the cost to the student," on the basis that "it is in the interest of the nation that the abilities of each person be developed through education up to this level."[5]

A Framework of Analysis

As will be shown below, implementing the universal junior college education proposal is rather expensive. For example, in 1960 it would have cost between $1.6 and $2.4 billion a year. Clearly, there are numerous demands on governments, many calling for billion dollar expenditure increases. Therefore, we need a framework within which to compare the efficiency of investing in junior college education with other investment opportunities. Benefit-cost analysis provides such a framework. However, we should not be over-optimistic about the reliability of our analysis. In this paper we will evaluate from an economic viewpoint some of a universal junior college program's anticipated consequences for society as a whole, rather than for various groups. Such an examination, when a long-time horizon is contemplated, involves large uncertainties which should be treated explicitly and kept in mind when reading the results of this analysis.

Mainly monetary benefit and cost dimensions will be considered in attempting a comparison between different proposals; however, some qualitative evaluation of certain aspects will be offered. The non-quantifiable aspects often carry more weight than the monetary ones in decision making. The quantitative part of the benefit-cost analsis may play a modest but hopefully significant role in determining the desirability of universal junior college education. It can at best be looked upon as a first approximation to be modified as better data and methods of analysis become available.

---

[2] *Ibid.*, p. 6.
[3] *Ibid.*, p. 19.
[4] *Ibid.*, pp. 25-26.
[5] *Ibid.*, p. 27.

Costs

The costs of public education are the resources of society drawn away from alternative uses. These costs can relate to operating or capital resources. In our analysis only the following items will be quantified:[6]

a) Direct operating costs, i.e., salaries and wages, and purchases of nondurable commodities and current services.
b) Capital resource costs, i.e., the value of the capital stock employed.
c) Imputed operating costs, i.e., foregone earnings and miscellaneous costs to students and their parents.

Salaries, wages, supplies, and annual capital costs require little elaboration. Less often considered are the major private sector costs of universal public junior college education: (1) earnings foregone by students, and (2) miscellaneous incidental costs to the students and their parents, necessitated by the former's college attendance. In the first case, students 18 to 20 years old could work full-time for an income that would exceed whatever they could earn part-time while in college. Whether or not they could find employment depends upon their skills, the supply of such skills already on the market, and their demand in the economy. Clearly, the overall employment picture of the economy has a strong bearing upon this cost element of universal junior college education.

Furthermore, students require particular goods and services because they are in college, e.g., books, assorted supplies, clothing, and transportation. To the extent that these needs are not met by public expenditures, either the students themselves (through part-time employment) or their parents bear the resultant costs.

Benefits

The benefits of education can be looked upon as the increased resources available to society, i.e., both those which contribute to society's economic well-being and those which are embodied in the educated person and permit him to participate in society more fully.

---

[6] For a more complete account of education cost elements see (19).

Foremost among tangible benefits is the students' incremental output. In a competitive economy the individual's incremental earnings represent the added social value generated by investment in his education. Education can alter the skill composition of the labor force and can speed up response to the economy's changing requirements. Thus, the incremental earnings will reflect not only the general employment picture of the economy, but also the sensitivity of the schools (and the students themselves) to both short- and long-term labor market conditions.

A second tangible benefit is the decline in demands for public services resulting from a decrease in social and personal disorders which can be associated with inadequte schooling. For example, the demand for police services arising from juvenile delinquency may well decline if additional education expenditures permit youths to further their education and find jobs.

A third benefit area is that of education-induced increments in the social product of second parties. Children growing up in a home environment that encourages intellectual growth and expression may contribute more to society than those whose early training rejected such values. Co-workers of the educated students can be considered second-party beneficiaries when informal education (through association, imitation and encouragement) increases output.

Then there are long-run community and personal benefits that are mainly intangible because their manifestations are complex, circuitous, and hard to isolate. They include improved operation of a democratic government, an advanced technologically-oriented economy, and an aesthetically enriched culture—all of which benefit all members of society. These benefits are major, but at present cannot be expressed in quantitative terms.

Finally, a mention should be made of the employment effect of universal junior college education, that is, the job opportunities for others which arise when members of the labor force enter junior college on a full-time basis.

Some Benefit-Cost Estimates

Now let us try to quantify some benefits and costs of the universal junior college proposal. The benefit and cost estimates will be made for representative high school graduates who do not enter college. Initially, we will not assume any differences in the ability, background, motivation, or aspirations of these students, compared with the high school graduates who currently continue in college. Further, we will assume that the employment conditions faced by these students, while in school and after completion of their junior college program, are the same as those typically experienced by a person with one to three years of higher education. We will assume that the students are eighteen years old when they enter college on a full-time basis, in the semester following graduation from high school, and that they remain in college for full two years.

Column 1 of Table 1 presents costs and benefits of junior college attendance for male and female students attending junior college in 1960. Operating costs are assumed to equal the average costs per full-time equivalent degree-credit junior college student. Capital costs use the same student base and are computed at 8 percent of the value of physical plant as the equivalent of capital consumption and interest charges.[7] Foregone earnings are based on the median income differentials of persons eighteen and nineteen years old with one to three years of college, and those of the same age with four years of high school only. Miscellaneous costs include only fees, books and supplies. Students are assumed to live at home. All costs are for two years, with the second year values discounted at a rate of 5 percent.

The benefit entry represents the incremental income the student may expect (based on the cross-sectional data of the 1960 Census) as a person with one to three years of college, as against his expectations as a high school graduate—with adjustments made for labor-force participation rates. Again the stream of future returns is discounted at a rate of 5 percent.

The data then indicate that the male student's attendance in junior college will yield a net benefit of $2107, or 95 cents over each dollar of costs. As expected, females do not fare as well; their attendance produces a net cost of $254 or a return of only 8 cents for each dollar of cost.

---

[7] The use of 8 percent as the estimator of capital costs from capital value follows the practice of Robert Rude as used by T. W. Schultz and cited by Rudolph C. Blitz, "The Nation's Education Outlay," in *Economics of Higher Education,* Selma J. Mushkin, ed., (Washington, D. C.: U.S. Office of Education, 1962), pp. 160-161.

Table 1.
BENEFITS AND COSTS OF TWO YEARS OF JUNIOR COLLEGE EDUCATION FOR MALES AND FEMALES, 1960
(Present values at 5% discount rate)

	(1)	(2)
	Junior College	
	Today's students	Potential students
Male		
Operating costs	$1269	$1396
Capital costs	371	408
Foregone earnings	349	349
Miscellaneous private costs	234	234
Total costs	2223	2387
Incremental income	4330	2165
Net benefits (costs)	2107	(222)
Benefit/cost ratio	1.95	.91
Female		
Operating costs	1269	1396
Capital costs	371	408
Foregone earnings	488	488
Miscellaneous private costs	234	234
Total costs	2362	2526
Incremental income	2108	1054
Net benefits (costs)	(254)	(1472)
Benefit/cost ratio	.89	.42

Sources: U.S. Bureau of the Census, *U. S. Census of Population: 1960 Educational Attainment;* (U. S. Office of Education, *Costs of Attending College* (Bulletin 1957, #9); U. S. Office of Education, *Digest of Education Statistics: 1963 Edition;* U. S. Office of Education, *Statistics of Higher Education,* 1957-58.

Before we encourage all young men to enter junior college and dissuade the young women, we should look more closely at the assumptions underlying these findings. The operating and capital cost figures are based on the average costs of junior colleges. If these institutions are in the area of increasing costs, and we would expect this to be the case if only because of a relative inelastic supply of instructors, marginal costs would be higher than those indicated here. This point is minor if we speak of one student, but is of consequence if we consider one million students.

Let us re-examine the benefit assumptions made so far. Is it likely that under junior college education, training of those who presently do not go to college will yield the same benefits as those presently obtained by students in college? Is the prospective junior college student ready for and capable of pursuing a program comparable to that offered in our four-year or even our two-year institutions? In 1960 approximately four-fifths of those high school graduates who did not attend college were not in college preparatory courses in high school; less than half of those students graduating from high school were in college preparatory programs; the category "other" includes general education which is presumably sufficient for college entrance since one quarter of the graduates in this group did go on to college.[8] In short, under a universal junior college program, many youngsters would attend a two-year institution in spite of the fact that their training, achievement level, and commitment is below that of those who presently attend college. Therefore, we might assume, for example, that the operating and capital costs for junior colleges educating these less prepared students would be ten percent higher than the cost now reported, and on the other side of the ledger, that their incremental earnings would be only half of the increment currently accruing to those with two years of college. As shown by Column 2 of Table 1, there would be net costs of $222 and $1472 for these potential male and female students respectively. The corresponding benefit cost ratios would be .91 and .42 for the potential students as compared with 1.95 and .89 for today's junior college students. While the latter figures might be looked upon as constituting an upper limit, the first set could be the lower limit.

Similar benefit-cost ratios can now be estimated for alternative claims on the billion dollars or more required for this program. Examples in education could be the improving of the quality of primary, secondary or higher education. Or we might want to give more youngsters the equivalent of one year's college education by having them attend summer programs during five summers. Such an expenditure promises very high returns, i.e., a benefit-cost ratio of about 3.2 for male and of 1.5 for female students.

---

[8] U. S. Bureau of the Census and Department of Agriculture, *Factors Relating to College Attendance of Farm and Nonfarm High School Graduates: 1960,* (Washington, D. C.: June 15, 1962) Series P-27, No. 32, p. 17.

SOME CONCLUDING THOUGHTS

The last ten years have seen a massive increase in interest in the economics of education. Especially such powerful tools as system analysis, benefit-cost analysis, and program budgeting promise to improve rational education decisions. While economic analysis of education has favored primary and secondary education, higher education in general and junior colleges in particular should prove attractive areas of inquiry. We must investigate whether new and better education will equip youth for changing opportunities, or only increase the education level of those saddled with obsolete skills. What effects will changes in the profile of education attainment have upon the distribution of income and the politically potent distribution of income expectations? But, of greatest importance, what alternative avenues are open to us at this time for improving education while maintaining flexibility for individual abilities and aspirations? Further examinations by scholars and policy makers, and an enlightened public debate, are to be hoped for before major new commitments are made.

SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Becker, Gary S. *Human Capital: A Theoretical and Empirical Analysis, with Special Reference to Education.* New York: Columbia University Press, 1964, 185 p.
2. Bowen, William G. *Economic Aspects of Education.* Princeton, New Jersey: Industrial Relations Section, Princeton University, 1964, 122 p.
3. Break, George F. "The Effects of Taxation on Work Incentives," in *Federal Tax Policy for Economic Growth and Stability,* Joint Committee on The Economic Report, 84th Congress, 1st Session, Washington, D. C. 1955, pp. 192-199.
4. Buchanan, James M. "Federal Grants and Resource Allocation," *Journal of Political Economy* (June 1952), pp. 208-217.
5. Burkhead, Jesse. *State and Local Taxes for Public Education.* Syracuse: Syracuse University Press, 1963, 110 p.
6. Butters, J. Keith. "Effects of Taxation on the Investment Capacities and Policies of Individuals," in *Federal Tax Policy, op. cit.* pp. 126-135.
7. Denison, Edward F. "Education, Economic Growth, and Gaps in Information," *Journal of Political Economy* (October 1962), pp. 124-128.
8. ………………… …… *The Sources of Economic Growth in the United States and the Alternatives Before Us.* New York: Committee for Economic Development, 1962, 297 p.
9. Due, John F. *Sales Taxation.* Urbana: University of Illinois Press, 1957, 396 p.
10. Friedman, Milton, and Simon Kuznets. *Income from Independent Professional Practice.* New York: National Bureau of Economic Research, 1945, 599 p.
11. Groves, Harold M. and C. Harry Kahn. "The Stability of State and Local Tax Yields," *American Economic Review* (March 1952), pp. 87-102.
12. Hansen, W. Lee. "Total and Private Rates of Return to Investment in Schooling," *Journal of Political Economy* (April 1963), pp. 128-140.
13. Hanson, Nels W. "Economy of Scale as a Cost Factor in Financing Public Schools," *National Tax Journal* (March 1964), pp. 92-95.

14. Harris, Seymour E. (ed.) *Economic Aspects of Higher Education*. Paris: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1964, 252 p.

15. Heller, Walter W. "Education as a National Responsibility," in *Federal Grants to States for Elementary and Secondary Schools,* hearings before the Subcommittee on Education of the Committee on Labor and Public Welfare, U. S. Senate, 86th Congress, 1st Session, 1959, pp. 70-81.

16. Hirsch, Werner Z. "Determinants of Public Education Expenditures," *National Tax Journal* (March 1960), pp. 29-40.

17. .... *Education in the Program Budget*. Santa Monica: The RAND Corporation, 1965, 37 p.

18. .... "Fiscal Impact of Industrialization on Local Schools," *The Review of Economics and Statistics* (May 1964), pp. 191-199.

19. ...., Elbert W. Seleghorst, and Morton J. Marcus. *Spillover of Public Education Costs and Benefits.* Los Angeles: Institute of Government and Public Affairs, University of California, 1964, 465 p.

20. James, H. Thomas. "Analysis of Wisconsin's School Support Program," in Committee on Educational Finance, *Problems and Opportunities in Financing Education*. Washington: National Education Association, 1959.

21. Johns, Roe L. and Edgar L. Morphet. *Financing the Public Schools.* Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960, 566 p.

22. Keezer, Dexter M. (ed.) *Financing Higher Education, 1960-1970*. New York: McGraw-Hill, 1959, 304 p.

23. Kershaw, Joseph A., and Roland N. McKean. *Systems Analysis and Education*. Santa Monica: The RAND Corporation, October 1959, 70 p.

24. .... *Teacher Shortages and Salary Schedules.* New York: McGraw-Hill, 1962, 190 p.

25. Labovitz, I. M. *Aid for Federally Affected Public Schools.* New York: Syracuse University Press, 1963, 198 p.

26. Leibenstein, Harvey. *Economic Backwardness and Economic Growth.* New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc., 1962, 295 p.

27. Lindman, Erick L. *State School Support and Municipal Government Costs.* Los Angeles: University of California, 1964, 130 p.

28. Machlup, Fritz. *The Production and Distribution of Knowledge in the United States*. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1962, 416 p.

29. Miller, Herman P. "Annual and Lifetime Income in Relation to Education, 1939-1959," *American Economic Review* (December 1960), pp. 962-986.

30. Mincer, Jacob. "On-the-Job Training: Costs, Returns, and Some Implications," *Journal of Political Economy* (October 1962), pp. 50-79.

31. Mort, Paul R. *A New Approach to School Finance*. Albany: New York State Educational Conference Board, 1961.

32. Mushkin, Selma (ed.) *Economics of Higher Education*. Washington, D. C.: Office of Education, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 1962, 406 p.

33. Netzer, Dick. "Financial Needs and Resources Over the Next Decade: State and Local Governments," in National Bureau of Economic Research, *Public Finances: Needs, Sources, and Utilization*. Princeton, New Jersey: Princeton University Press, 1961, pp. 23-65.

34. Schultz, Theodore W. *The Economic Value of Education*. New York: Columbia University Press, 1963, 92 p.

35. .... "Investment in Human Capital," *American Economic Review* (March 1961), pp. 1-17.

36. Weisbrod, Burton A. *External Benefits of Public Education*. Princeton, New Jersey: Industrial Relations Section, Princeton University, 1964, 143 p.

37. .... "The Valuation of Human Capital," *The Journal of Political Economy* (October 1961), pp. 425-436.

38. Williams, Harry. *Planning for Effective Resource Allocation in Universities.* Washington, D. C.: Institute for Defense Analyses, July 1965, 95 p.

7

Implications of New Developments in Economics and Public Finance for Community College Administration

by

JAMES L. WATTENBARGER

Implications of New Developments in Economics and Public Finance for Community College Administration

James L. Wattenbarger, Director
Division of Community Junior Colleges
State Department of Education
Tallahassee, Florida

In Dr. Hirsch's fine presentation earlier today, you noted, I am sure, that he defined economics as being concerned with allocation of scarce resources among competing claims. He also has described three recent developments in the area of economics which provide new ways for arriving at decisions — methods unavailable to us previously because of factors related to time, availability of data, and research techniques. Like most community junior college administrators, I must confess to an uncertain understanding of computers, as well as to these recently developed mathematical analyses techniques of budgetary decision-making processes. Dr. Hirsch, however, has done an excellent job in indicating to you how these techniques and understandings can be used to the best advantage in helping to arrive at decisions concerning the need for universal education at the post high school level.

My concern will not be centered upon the items Dr. Hirsch already has discussed so adequately. I would prefer, if I may, to discuss the implications which I have drawn from several conclusions described by writers in the field of economics, especially those related to public finance.

I can make no claim to expertise in economics. My contacts with this discipline during my undergraduate days often left me belaboring the obvious and understanding little. From Marshall through John Maynard Keynes, I was able to remain almost untouched. However, even a novice today will recognize some pertinent changes in the general understandings of the field of economics and will see that the trends described by trained economists will make a difference in our approach to applying economic theory. I would categorize these developments in economics and public finance under two major headings:

1. The economic and social benefits of education as may be related to the optimum expenditure for education;

2. The trends in public finance which influence the support pattern for community junior college education in the United States.

Economists and others who regularly comment in this field have referred in detail to the economic as well as the social benefits received from continued education. There have been a number of attempts to categorize and to describe these benefits. Dr. Hirsch has given us one example in his benefit-cost estimates. Other recent examples include a dissertation by Harold H. Kastner, Jr., in which through the development of a model, he reached specific conclusions regarding the direct return of education to community junior college graduates. He found that, based upon an annually compounded rate of interest, two years of education at a community junior college yields to the graduate a social return of 12 per cent for men and 11 per cent for women. The direct return which accrues over a forty-five year work period represents a net investment which will mean an annual yield of five per cent for men and four per cent for women. These figures indicate an increase in productive capacity over and above the cost of education to society and the loss of income while a student to the individuals concerned.

Other students have compiled studies which attempt to determine relationships between wealth and education: Lamar Moody at the University of Florida recently compared the economic growth of states to the share of wealth each devotes to public education. Eugene McLoone, at the University of Illinois in 1961 completed a study of the effects of tax elasticities on the financial support of education. Richard P. Jungers, at the University of Wisconsin, has completed a study on the relationship of wealth and income to the financial support of public education in Wisconsin.

The sixtieth yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education categorized many of the factors which have led to the conclusion that there is a definite connection between education and social and economic improvement.

These benefits are not limited to a single state or nation. We have assumed a global nature to the consequence of education. This assumption is based upon the interdependent market economy in which we live and the geographically mobile population which has developed since World War II. Some rather clear indicators of these factors may be found in the development of the European "common market" and the United States policies for overseas aid. Both of these political decisions were reached because of economic principles.

The need for employees in various types of technical jobs and the improvement of transportation have encouraged mobility of population not only within national boundaries, but also across them. The obvious implications of these facts for a community junior college administrator is that education at this level must be developed not only for those who are now participating, but also for a continually increasing number of persons. The curriculum offerings must include a variety of occupational offerings, not only for economic reasons, but also for personal reasons for each individual. The concept of community-centered programs must be considered in a much wider context. We cannot assume that students should be prepared to participate in courses leading to employment which may be found solely in the local community. It often may be desirable to education specifically young people to work in situations away from their home communities.

Another curriculum implication derived from the fact of the mobility of our population is the recognition that education cannot be solely oriented to a single community or a single state. It even would be questionable practice to limit the orientation to a single region or a single country. The need for economic interchange between nations may be emphasized and encouraged through courses which improve communication between peoples of various languages and customs.

The economic benefits are not reaped solely by the individual. In fact, there are a number of writers who maintain that educational opportunity is a critical factor in national security. These writers maintain also that the cost of education must be divorced from the family capacity to pay and the social position of the family. This conclusion is reached because of the assertion that there is a social good as well as an individual good received from opportunity for advanced education.

The concern evidenced in the United States a few years back when it was concluded that Russia's educational system was producing more engineers than our system is an example of the way the national welfare is brought into educational decisions. These facts would negate the frequently propounded arguments that education is of benefit to the individual, and *ergo,* he should pay for it. (The fact that he will pay through taxation is not considered in this argument.)

It is of importance to economic stability and progress as well as to national security to develop opportunities which are widely available and of low cost to the students. The implication of those facts is that community junior college boards should keep fees low, or eliminate them entirely. The development of scholarship funds also becomes an important interpretation of public policy.

The concern of economists for the student's foregone earnings during the period of his schooling have become a part of the estimates for total costs of education. Another conclusion often reached by economists is concerned with the indivisable character of the benefits of education. No one can exclude the non-students from achieving sizeable gains from expenditures for education. It has become a national policy to use education to break the cycle of poverty and overcome the lack of motivation among certain low income groups. Therefore, education is not a commodity which can be sold at market prices to those who receive the benefits directly. The importance of encouraging all persons to take advantage of education also is a major consideration.

In the practice of public finance, taxation of individuals must be based on broad general principles of public good and not on the basis of exact determination of the direct dividends received. Determining the optimum expenditure for education is a political process through which the claims of resources for education can be evaluated against the claims for other public services. These assumptions lead to the conclusion that general taxation for improved educational opportunities will result in benefits for everyone, both student and non-student.

In partial summary, I would say that the discipline of economics has a number of factors relating to the benefits of education. These factors are based upon studies which (1) outline and describe the economic benefits of education; (2) point up the present day interdependent market economy and the geographically mobile population which may be associated with the global nature of the results of education; (3) illustrate the fact that education has a function in promoting social mobility and providing for equality of economic opportunity; (4) assert that the social benefits of education are divorced from family capacity to pay and social position; (5) prove that there is an indivisible character in the benefits of education, and that even non-students will receive sizeable benefits from educational expenditures; (6) plead that education can be consciously used as a policy of government to break the cycle of poverty as well as to overcome the lack of motivation among certain low-income groups; (7) recommend that the taxation of individuals must be based upon broad, general principles rather than on the exact determination of the benefits received from educational services, and (8) conclude that the optimum in actual expenditures for education should be a political decision rather than a decision made upon the market value of education.

The implications of these studies are (1) that post high school education must be made available to all who can benefit therefrom; (2) that curriculum must not be based solely upon local considerations; (3) that there is continued need for courses which improve communication between people; (4) that fees should be kept low or even eliminated if possible; (5) that factors which encourage attendance should be given careful attention; and, (6) that general taxation is a sound basis for support of post high school education.

The second major heading mentioned at the beginning of this presentation is centered around the trends in public finance which may be related to support for community junior college education.

There have developed in the various states several different methods of support for public education. The public community junior college is an outstanding illustration of the variety of these differences. Typically, the community junior college has been started under local support. In this respect the support for the community junior college has been more nearly like the support for the lower grades than the support for colleges and universities. However, more recently a wide variety of support patterns have been developed. Some of the new developments in public finance have had specific and direct impact upon public community junior college development.

Local taxation typically has been a real and personal property tax. The principal basis of state taxation has been sales taxes and other use taxes. Federal income typically has been derived from income taxes and special use taxes. Local support has been used to provide funds for operating and for capital outlay expenditures. State funds have been used in both ways, typically first as a part of current operating expenses and then more recently for capital outlay expenditures. Federal support has been limited in great measure to direct grants-in-aid for specific purposes. These grants-in-aid usually have been rationalized on the basis of national requirements for defense.

Recent developments appear to support a change in both the amount and the source of support from these three levels of government. Increased attention currently is found in state support, supplemented by federally allocated funds. The federal sources have begun to move away from specific grants-in-ald to other types of general support, such as is provided by the Higher Education Facilities Act, and to some extent the new Elementary and Secondary Act. A new development in public finance is a consideration of the changes in sources of support for education.

The principle of equalization among various institutions also is taken into account in this change of sources of revenue. The principle represents an attempt to provide at least a minimal level of educational opportunity in all parts of the state. As federal sources begin to be considered, the principal of equalization may be applied in all parts of the country.

Some of the concerns which we may have in connection with this trend are pointed up in the following questions:

1. Does a change in source of support reduce local control? Since junior colleges typically are locally controlled, locally oriented, locally operated, they have claimed a great deal of authority and institutional independence. To receive funds from an entirely different source may reduce these local preferences. An example may help to clarify what I mean: Recently, a county-supported institution in one of our states decided that it would curb expenditures at its institution by eliminating enrollment of students who lived outside the county. Since this institution was the recipient of federal funds, the newspaper editor of an adjacent county wrote to Washington to inquire whether the county board had the right to make this decision. The question has not been answered as yet, but I am sure you can see the implications involved.

2. Will increased support from state and federal sources provide additional funds or merely replace local funds? The increased gross national product and the resulting increase in income which is received both by individuals and by the nation as a whole has not increased local support for education. Studies carried out in many places in the country have indicated that there is not a direct relationship between increased income and increased local expenditures for education. Now, then, are total expenditures for education to be raised in line with the increasing costs of operating educational institutions in a time of rising income? Is this to be done by maintaining the same level of local support and increasing the state support? Is this to be done by maintaining the same level of local and state support and increasing the federal support? If this latter is true, what implication does this have for the responsibility of the college or other institution to

provide programs which are equally beneficial to students who live 2,000 miles away as they are for students who live in the immediate environs?

3. Do sources of support patterns force "efficiency" or other "desirable improvements" in education? The problems of small administrative units have been alleviated in great measure by the formation of larger districts. Should money be used as a weapon to enforce reluctant localities to do what they should do anyway? This district problem has been a particularly important one for the community junior colleges. Efficient units have not been possible in many states when regular school districts have been used as a basis for support. In states such as California where there is a long history of junior college development, recent district reorganization has been encouraged by state law and regulation. This enlargement has been accomplished by combining smaller junior college districts into larger districts. States such as Iowa, Kansas, Michigan and Illinois have experienced recent pressures to develop larger junior college districts. Florida, in outlining its basic community college plan immediately faced the problem associated with small districts and provided for larger districts which, in this instance, meant combinations of counties rather than combinations of small school districts. In a few states reluctance to add any more education to local support responsibilities has resulted in the largest district of all — an entire state. Some new community junior colleges have been set up as entirely state supported.

Another result of the change in sources of income is shown in studies which indicate that there is a persistenly higher total expenditure as sources of income move away from the local support. The fact that state support raises the total expenditures to a level above that which would prevail if local factors alone determined expenditures is evidence that the external benefits of local education receive consideration in determining the level of support. A larger proportion of public school revenues provided by the state is associated with higher levels of total per capita expenditures. In other words, there is a tendency for the expenditures to be higher as state support increases and this cost is spread among all residents of the state rather than only among those living within the boundaries of a local junior college district.

Another conclusion which has been reached by some writers in public finance is that scope and quality of education are, to some extent, expenditure-determining rather than expenditure-determined, and thus constitute a policy variable. In other words, if people are concerned with and interested in the scope and quality of education at the junior college level, this concern will determine the optimum level of expenditure rather than the amount of money available. The scope and quality come first and determine the expenditure which will eventually be made.

In summary, I would see the following developments in the sources of support as developed in modern studies of public finance as having implications for junior colleges:

1. Changes in sources of support. Increases in state and federal support tend to increase the total expenditures for education and to decrease local support to some extent.

2. The reorganization of school districts has a definite result in the development of community junior colleges. The fact that since 1942 the number of operating school systems has been reduced from 100,000 districts to about 25,000 is indicative of the trend in grades 1-12. The factors which have caused this reorganization are equally present in the development of community junior college districts. These factors have resulted in the development of larger community college districts in some states, the formation of countywide districts in other states, and even have encouraged in a few states the development of statewide junior college systems.

3. Property tax reforms have been particularly important of recent date. The accusation that real property no longer is an equitable form of taxation has caused considerable opposition to increasing this type of taxation. While realistic assessment procedures would be helpful in this regard, the real sources of opposition are centered around the basis theory of property taxation.

4. The use of grants-in-aid, both from state and from the federal government has opened up a new source of support. These have been used for various purposes including equalization. The trend now, however, is to more direct support for over-all programs balanced by equalization formulae.

I have now listed some of the major factors which seem to be operating in the areas of economics and public finance. I have suggested some of the implications which these may have for community junior colleges. In addition to those implications which already have been listed, however, in relation to specific hearings, I would like to call your attention to other implications which also may be deduced:

1. The need for trained manpower in the economic life of the country requires that educational institutions be developed which will provide training for this manpower. If the community

junior college is to become a functional institution to accomplish this goal, continued and careful attention should be given to the development of occupational curriculums.

2. Student personnel activities and student personnel policies will need to reflect the broader concern of nationwide and even worldwide educational needs as well as local concerns. This means that as a result of the increased mobility of students from one section of the state to another, as well as one section of the country to another, there will be an accompanying increase in the need for education which has a broader purpose.

3. Since the exclusively local orientation of junior colleges is going to be less, faculty members should be selected from as broad a base as possible. Specifically, faculty members should come from all parts of the country in order to provide the cosmopolitan atmosphere desirable in a local institution.

4. Since all of society will be concerned with those who are operating at the lowest level socially and economically, there will be an increased concern for those who are now living in poverty and are thereby both socially and economically deprived.

5. Since the problems continually become more complex, the educational preparation of the administrative leadership for community junior colleges must continue to be at the highest possible level. This specifically means that individuals will not be considered eligible for top administrative positions unless they hold a doctoral degree.

6. Since tax sources continue to be limited, even though incomes may increase, there will be necessity for applying the most sophisticated management processes to the operation of community junior colleges. This means more efficient use of faculty, more efficient use of facilities, and more efficient organization of programs.

7. Since the community junior colleges will be serving more than the local community needs, the financial support must be shared by state and nation as well as the local sources.

8. Finally, I would add that the developments outlined by Professor Hirsch will be necessary in junior colleges as they become larger institutions. Budget procedures and other decision-making processes will require more complicated variables than previously have ever been used.

These remarks summarize the implications that new developments in economics and public finance might have for community college administrators, according to one man's viewpoint. I am hopeful that these comments have provided the economists a chance to see how their conclusions may be interpreted by someone who is trying to use economic theory to develop a better educational program for the young people of our country. I hope this view has not been discouraging to them.

REFERENCES

1. Johns, Roe L. and Edgar L. Morphet, *Financing the Public Schools*. Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1960.
2. Kastner, Harold H., Jr., Dean, Polk Junior College, Bartow, Florida.
3. Miner, Jerry, *Social and Economic Factors in Spending for Public Education*. (The Economics and Politics of Public Education 11) Syracuse: Syracuse University Press, 1963.
4. National Society for the Study of Education, Sixteenth Yearbook: *Social Forces Influencing American Education*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1961.

8

New Outlooks for Occupational Change in the United States

by

BERNARD MICHAEL

New Outlooks for Occupational Change in the United States

Bernard Michael, Program Evaluation Officer
Division of Vocational and Technical Education
United States Office of Education

The following discussion was presented by Mr. Michael to accompany the Occupational Outlook Handbook Chart Series developed by the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

Among the most urgent problems facing this Nation are the education, training, counseling and placement of the millions of young people coming to maturity in this and in the next decade. We know that changes in the kinds of work people do have taken place and that the future will see even greater changes. What challenges for our educational system are implied by the changes projected in the occupational structure of the Nation?

The following highlights show some of the changes expected in the population, in the labor force, and in the structure of American industry together with the impact of these changes on future opportunities for youth and other workers who will be affected in a variety of industries and specific occupations.

Now I should emphasize a note of caution. Judgement about future events is a hazardous business. We must always keep in mind

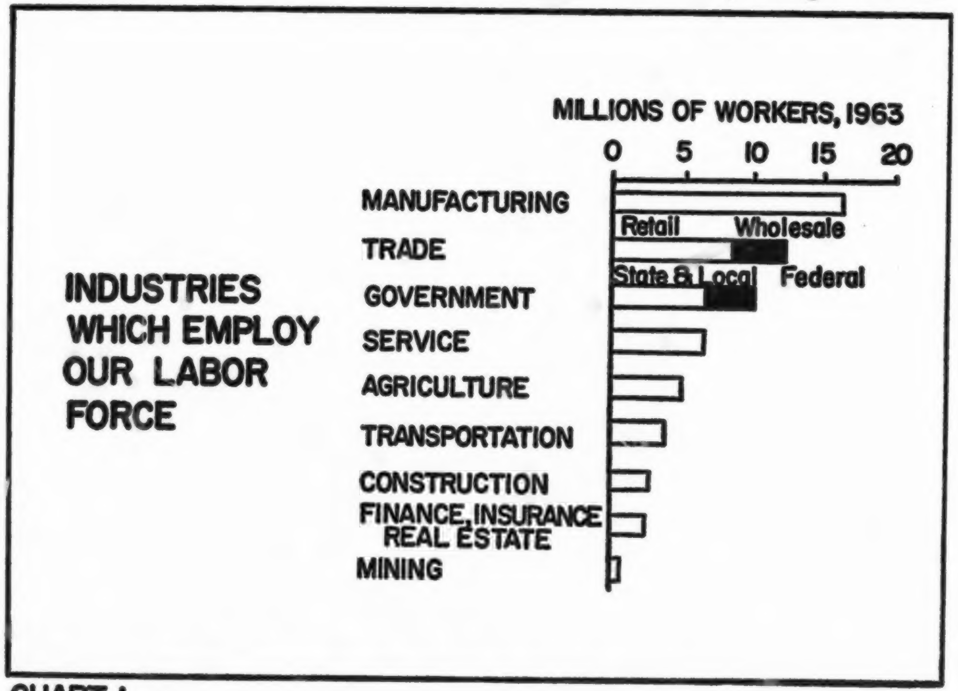


CHART I

that projections are based on certain basic assumptions. In this presentation they are as follows: continued high levels of economic activity; further scientific and technological advances; and no major wars or depressions, but no fundamental changes in the current international situation.

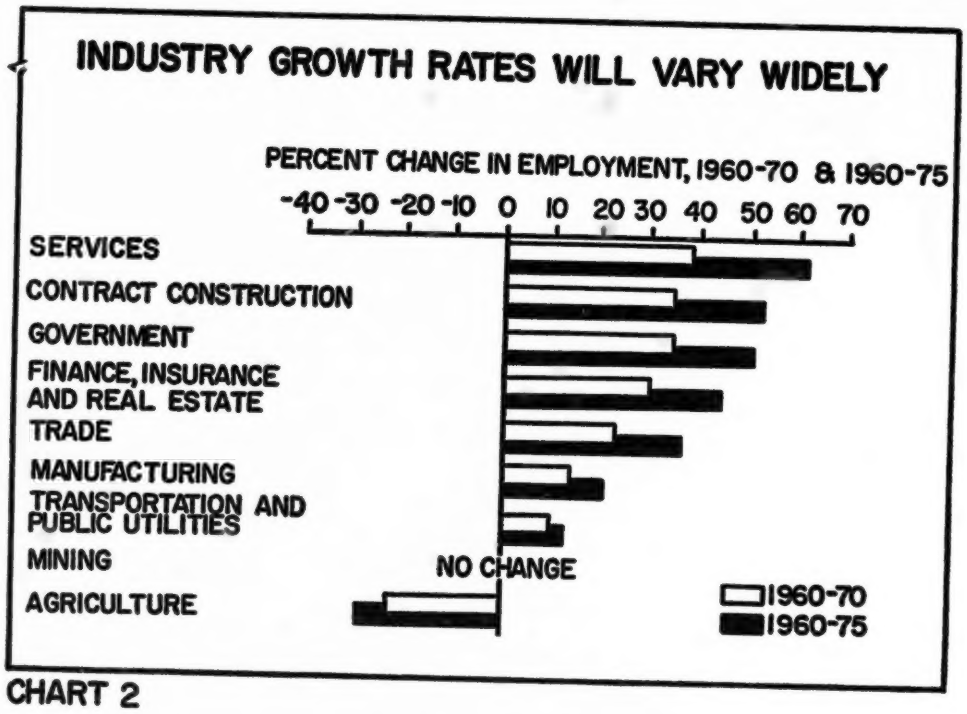


CHART 2

In looking forward to the decade of the seventies, the first question we must ask ourselves is where will the jobs be found in the mid-1970's for the roughly 88 million who will be working? With continued increases in agricultural productivity, farm employment is expected to continue to decline. Non-agricultural industries on the other hand may add as many as 21 million workers, about 16 million in the service-producing industries, such as trade, government, transportation, and public utilities and finance, plus 5 million workers in goods-producing industries, such as manufacturing, construction, and mining. Within these broad groupings, there will be many cross currents; some new industries will grow swiftly and some old ones will decline.

Employment in electronics manufacturing more than tripled between 1950 and 1962 and is expected to continue to grow into the middle 1970's. A broad and widening market is greatly increasing the demand for electronic products. Once a producer of radio sets exclusively, the electronics industry now also makes a diverse

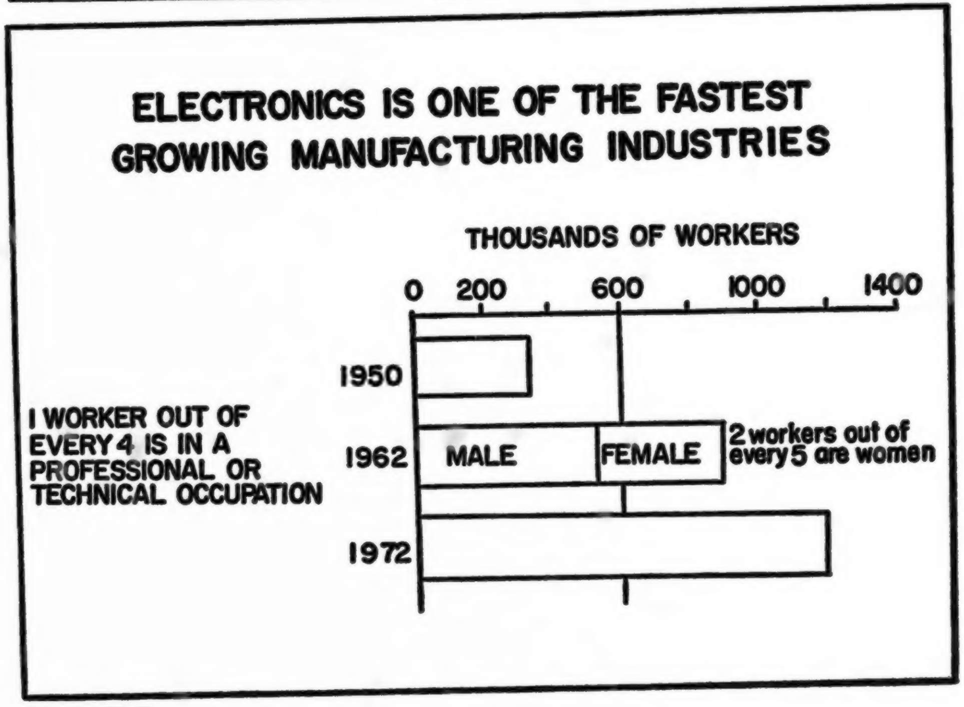


CHART 3

product such as computers for business and scientific purposes and defense-related equipment for missiles and spacecraft. Expansion has been related to the demand for military and space electronic equipment, and this industry is greatly affected by government expenditures.

The occupational structure in electronics manufacturing reflects the growing importance and sophistication of both military and commercial electronics products. The emphasis on research and development work with coincident production of a few costly and complex products is reflected in the occupational structure which has a high proportion of engineers, scientists, technicians and other professional, semi-professional and highly skilled workers.

Electronics manufacturing represents a major source of job opportunities for women, who account for about two-fifths of the industry's workers. Most of these women are employed as semiskilled plant workers, chiefly as assemblers, inspectors, and testers, but many work in other occupations, mainly in clerical and other office jobs.

Aero-space is an example of a new and rapidly changing industry which has grown by leaps and bounds in recent years. With much emphasis on research and development, this industry also makes great use of engineers, scientists, technicians, and skilled

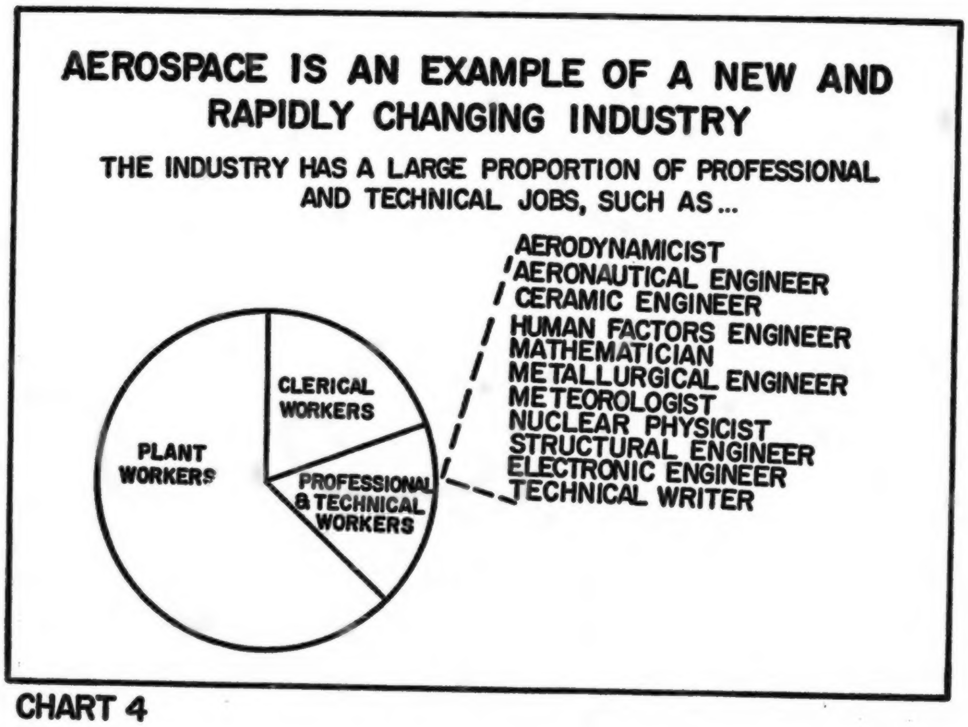


CHART 4

craftsmen—(note: future depends on government policy—defense and space).

These occupations represent 20 to 25 percent of aero-space employment, a larger proportion than in most other industries. On the other hand the number of plant workers—especially the semi-skilled and unskilled workers—have been decreasing as a percent of the whole. This trend will probably continue as more of the industries devote themselves to the custom reproduction of relatively smaller quantities of complex and diversed items. The semi-skilled and unskilled workers may even decrease in actual numbers during the years ahead.

Reasons for the sharp decline which is expected to continue during the remainder of this decade are technological changes: Widespread adoption of improved equipment such as the diesel-electric locomotives, improved methods of operation, and competition from other forms of transportation (automobiles, airplanes, trucks, pipelines, and ships). Workers with the least education in unskilled and semi-skilled occupations were hardest hit. Employment of executives, officials and assistants, the best educated group, changed only slightly. And these trends are likely to continue.

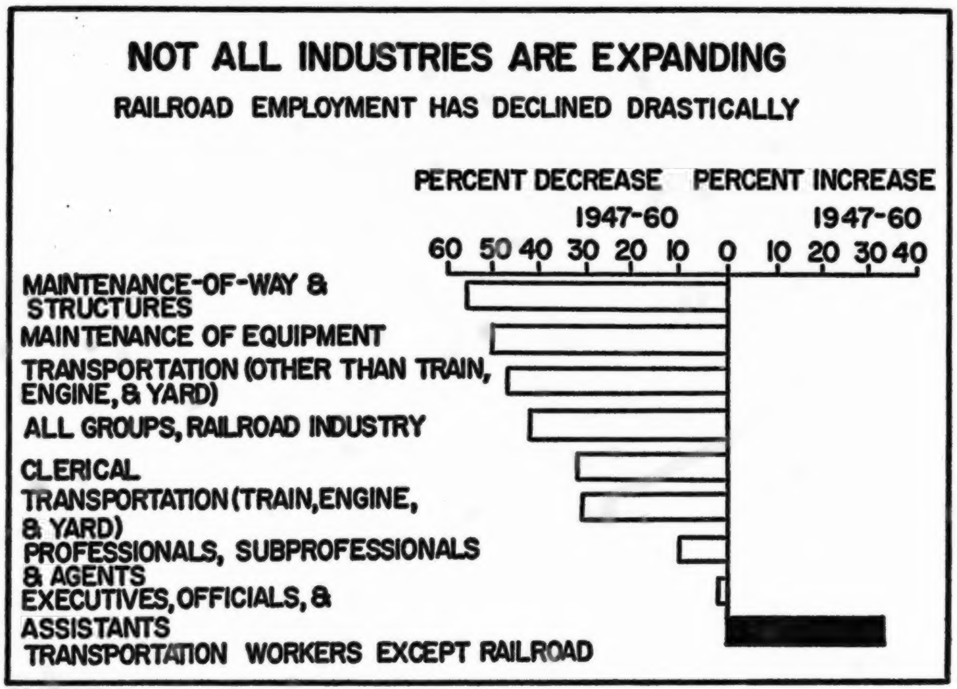


CHART 5

Employment in public services is increasing rapidly to meet the increasing needs for education, health and welfare services. State

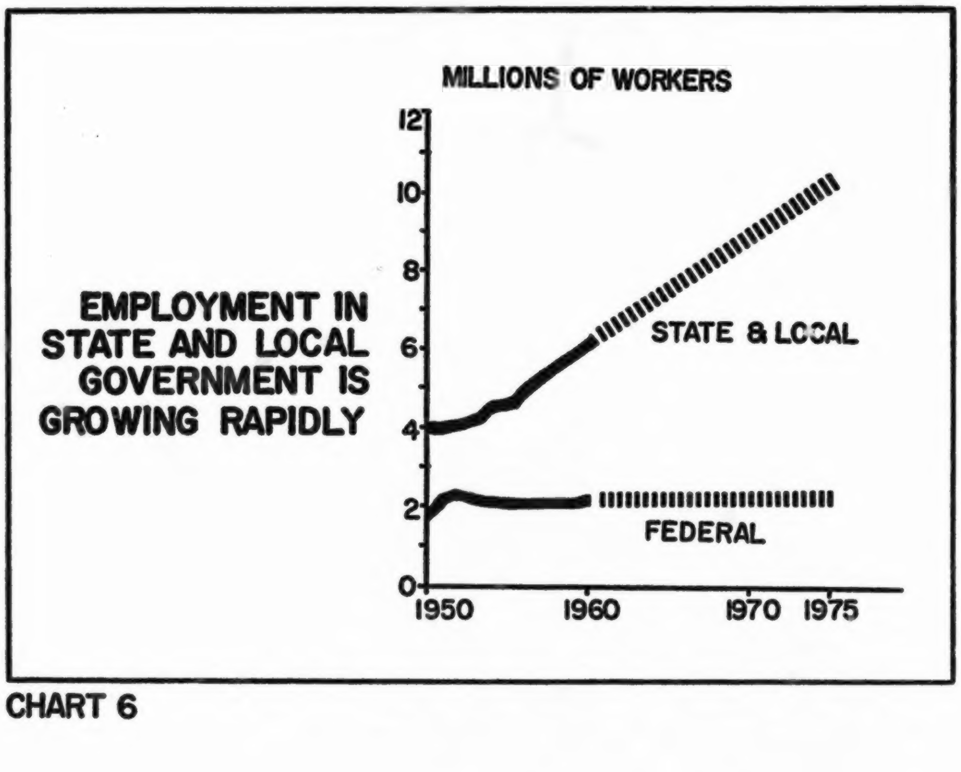


CHART 6

and local governments, which are primarily responsible for providing such services, may expand their payrolls to more than 10 million by 1975. (This projection was prepared before recent education legislation.) Federal government employment will probably level off near its present size which is close to 2½ million.

This chart illustrates what happens when productivity increases; which may help us to understand varying impacts of automation on employment.

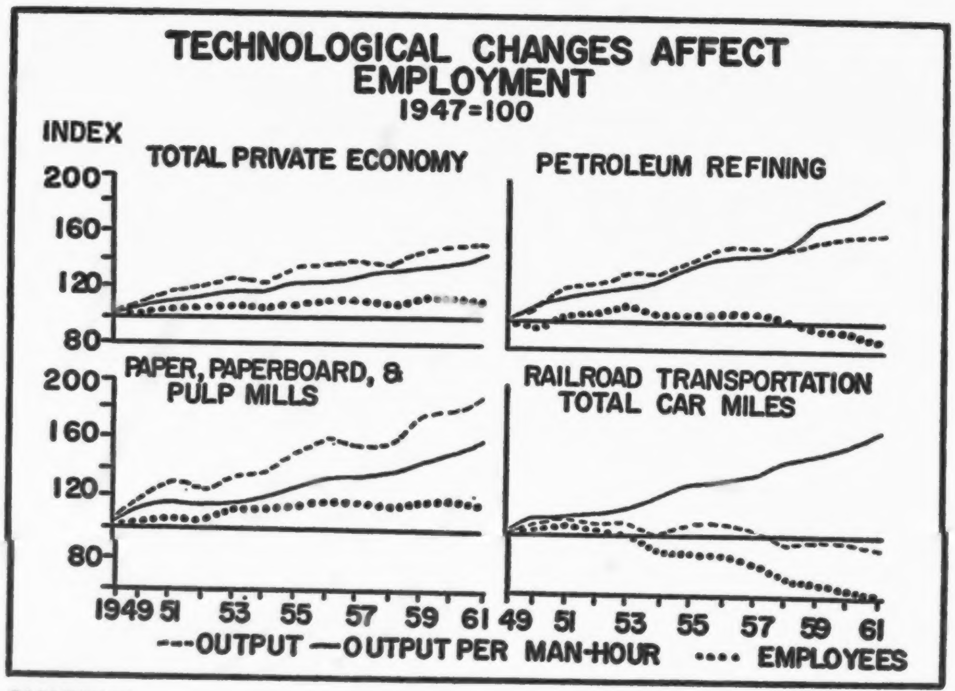


CHART 7

Petroleum – Output per man-hour increases faster than production: Result – employment down.

Railroads – A more drastic case: Efficiency up – output down – employment down.

Paper – Productivity has been going up, but production has been increasing even faster: Result – employment up.

What kinds of jobs do people have?

People worked in jobs of many different types in 1964:
31 million were in white collar jobs.
26 million were in blue collar jobs.
9 million were service workers.
4 million were farmers and farm workers.

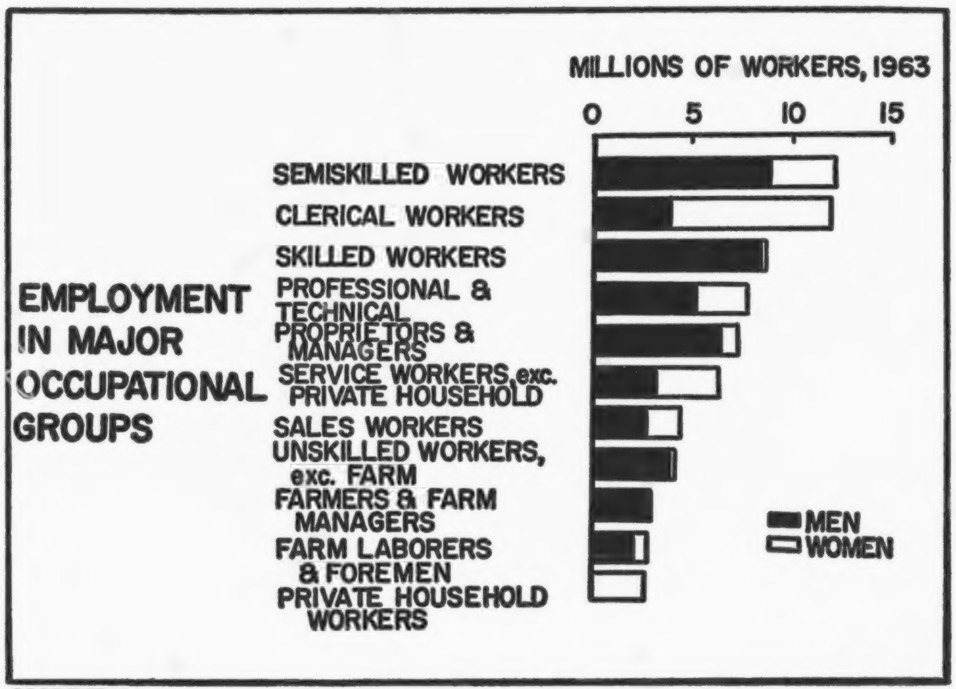


CHART 8

Men and women tend to get quite different kinds of work. (about 46 million men, about 24 million women)

Over half the men are employed in skilled, semi-skilled, and managerial jobs.

Over half the women are employed in clerical and service worker jobs—cooks, waitress, beauty parlor operator, or domestic workers.

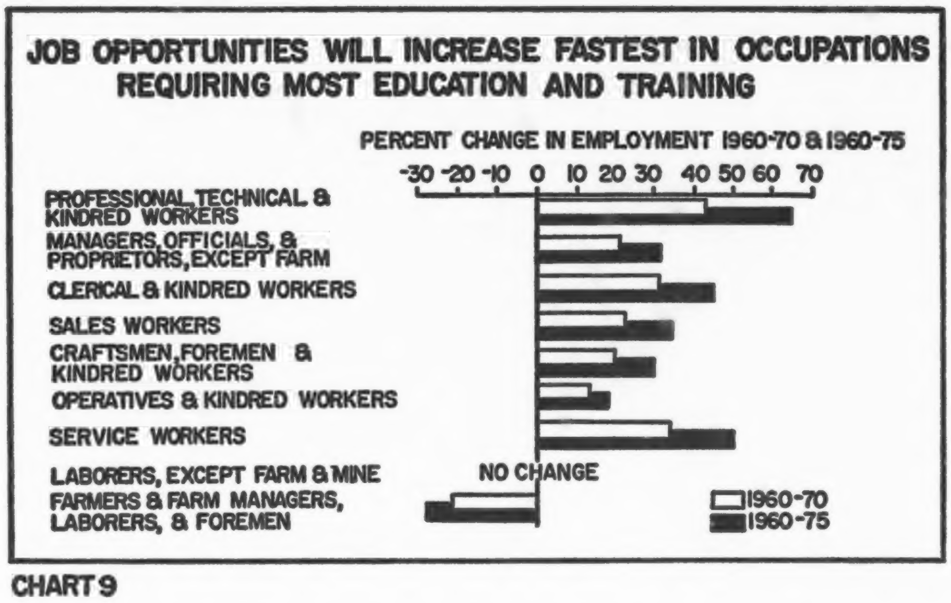


CHART 9

What changes can be expected in major occupations during the next decade? In general, our studies show that opportunities for employment will increase the fastest in those occupations requiring the most education and training. This means that the most rapid increases will be among the professional and technical workers and also in the clerical worker groups: in fact, in white collar occupations generally. In the blue collar group, the chances for employment will increase faster among craftsmen and other skilled workers than among operators, and there will be no increase at all in the opportunity to work among laborers. The large and miscellaneous group of service workers will expand greatly, while the number of farmers and farm workers will decline.

Time does not permit a detailed discussion of all of the occupations in these groups, but I would like to discuss some that I think will be of interest to you.

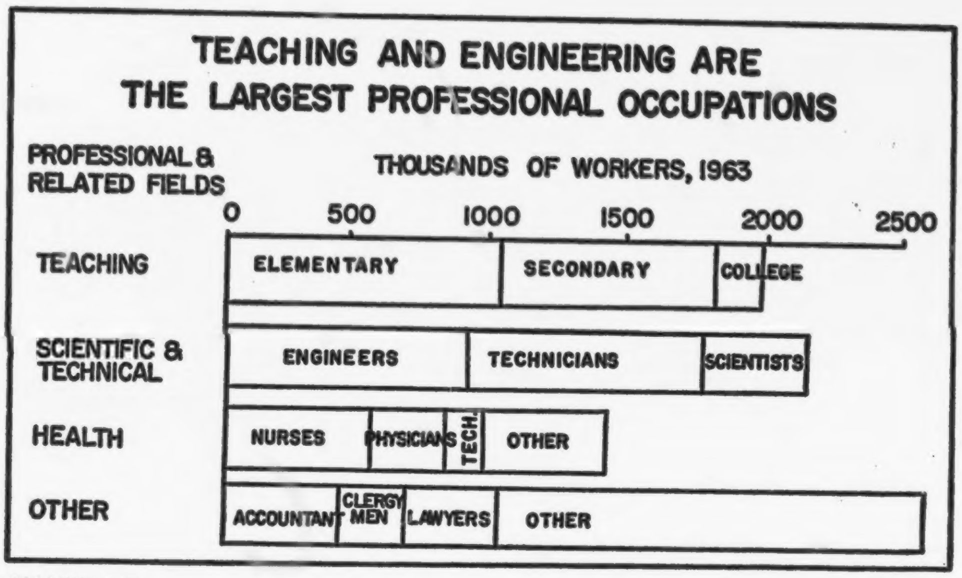


CHART 10

Professional and technical workers are the fastest growing group; more than 8 million in 1964.

2.3 million engineers, scientists, and supporting occupations
2.1 million teachers: elementary, secondary, and college
1.8 million workers in health occupations including nurses, physicians and others
2.3 million other professional and related workers — ranging from actors to clergy
Engineers — largest profession for men

Teaching – largest profession for women

Engineering, scientific, and technical occupations will be among the fastest growing occupational groups in the decade ahead.

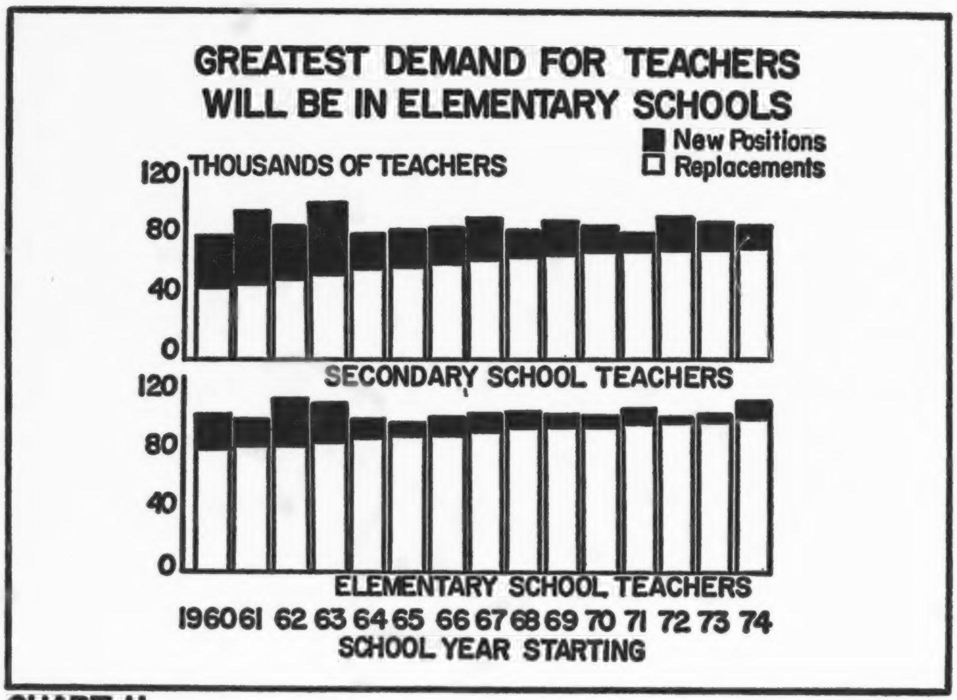


CHART II

I am sure that teaching is of interest to all of you. Remember that more people are in teaching than any other profession. Two million persons will become elementary and secondary school teachers: over 300,000 will become college teachers between now and 1975. More than four out of five new teachers will be needed to replace those who retire, die or leave the profession; the remainder will be needed to meet rising enrollment needs.

	1964 Employment	By 1975 will grow by: (roughly)
Scientists	390,000	One and one-half times
Engineers	975,000	Two-thirds
Technicians	875,000	Two-thirds

The health service occupations will need large numbers of trained workers. There were over 2.5 million people in health service occupations in 1962, (most recent estimates) including 1.8 million professional, technical and related workers; 600,000 service workers; and 100,000 managerial and clerical. Their education was as varied as their work.

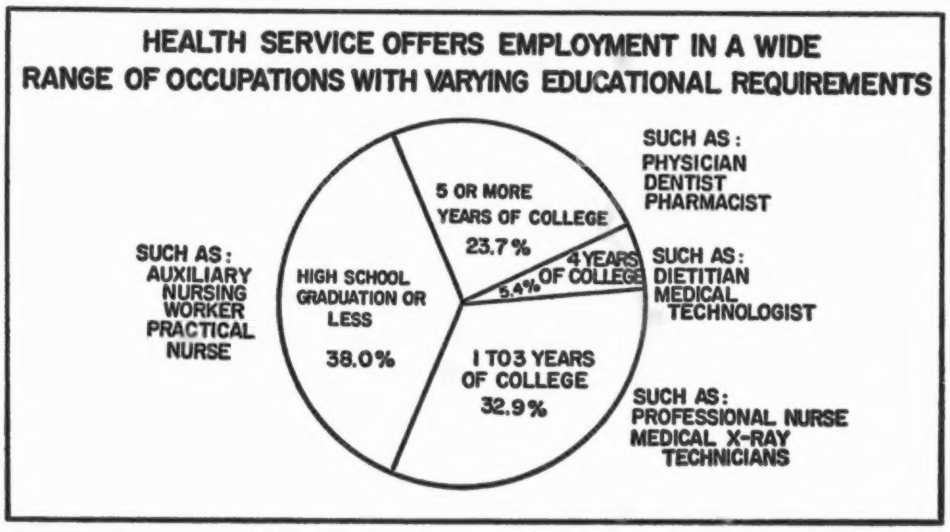


CHART 12

Employment in health is expected to grow more rapidly than the average for the labor force as a whole between now and 1975. Growth may be limited by shortages in the supply of trained personnel.

Managers, officials and proprietors numbered 7.5 million in 1964.

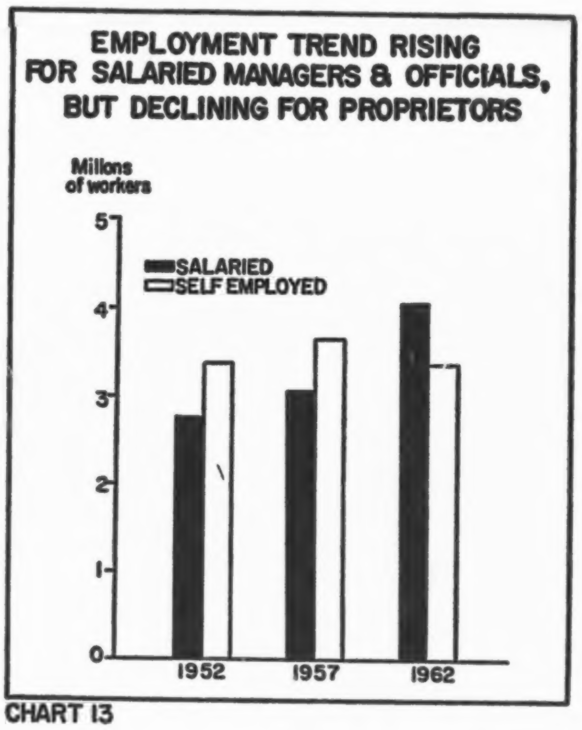


CHART 13

Salaried managers growing 4.3 million in 1964)

Self-employed proprietors (corner grocery) declined (3.2 million in 1964)

Nearly one in every 4 men in salaried positions had completed four or more years of college

Fewer than 1 in 12 proprietors in retail stores and 1 in 8 other owner-managers had this much education.

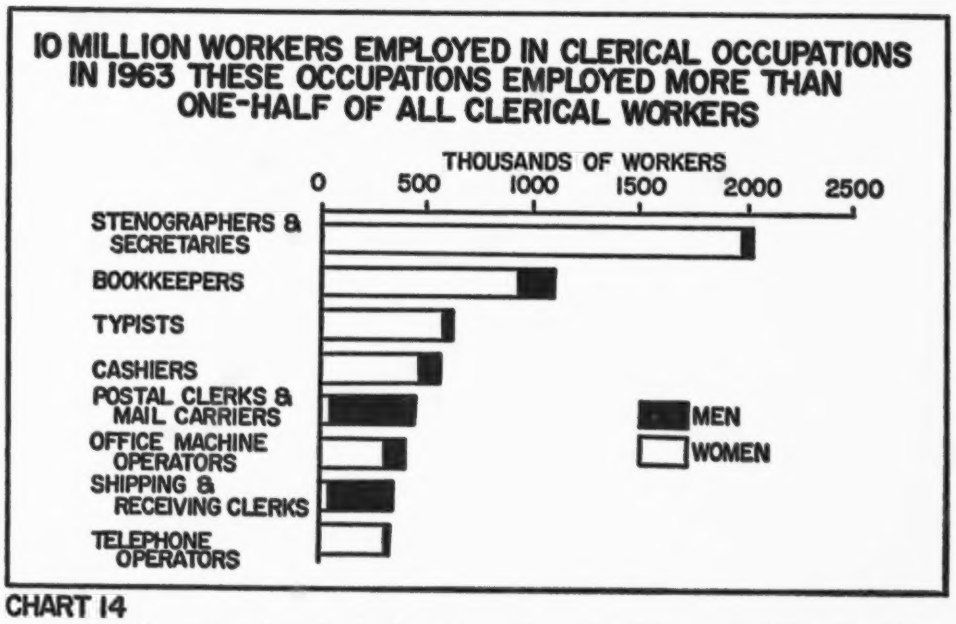


CHART 14

Employment in clerical occupations is rising rapidly. In 1964, nearly 11 million were employed in this area. Among the most rapidly expanding occupations are office machine operators and cashiers. Some clerical occupations are stable or declining in size—shipping and receiving clerks and telephone operators are in this group. Clerical is the largest field for women; nearly 7½ million in 1964 or almost one-third of all women employed were employed in the clerical field.

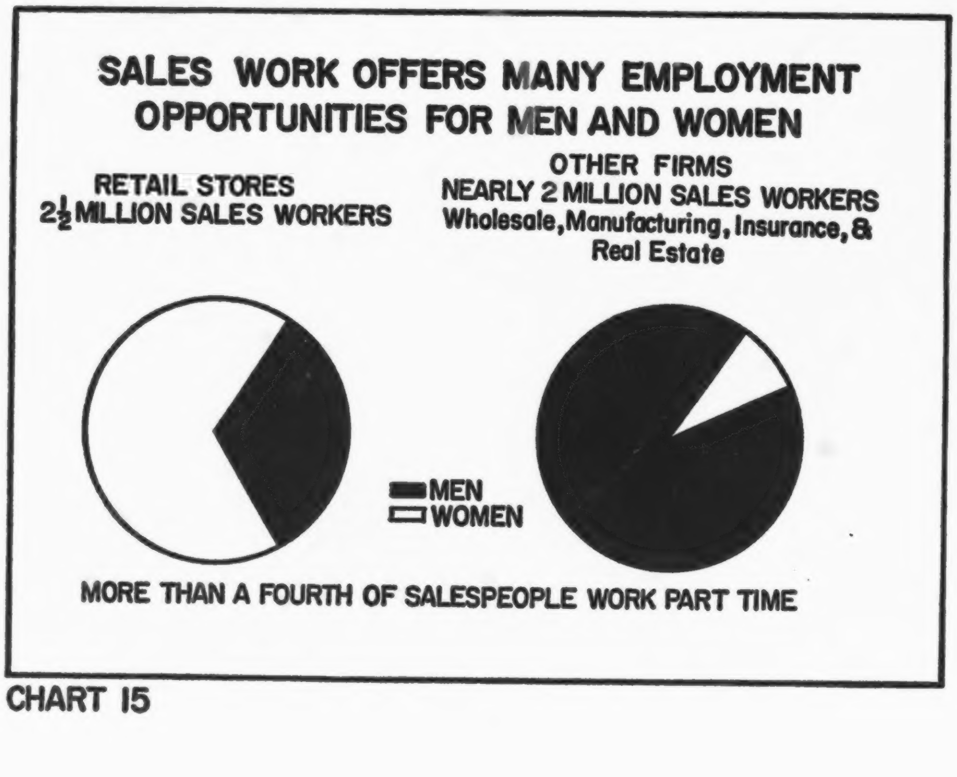


CHART 15

Sales is a large occupation:
- 4.5 million total — 1964
- 60% retail stores (3/5 women)
- (More than 1/4 part-time — fewer than 35 hours per week)
- Employment is expanding in sales jobs requiring better than average education or considerable technical training; mostly in wholesale trade, manufacturing, insurance, or real estate mostly for men.
- Growth in routine sales jobs is slow.

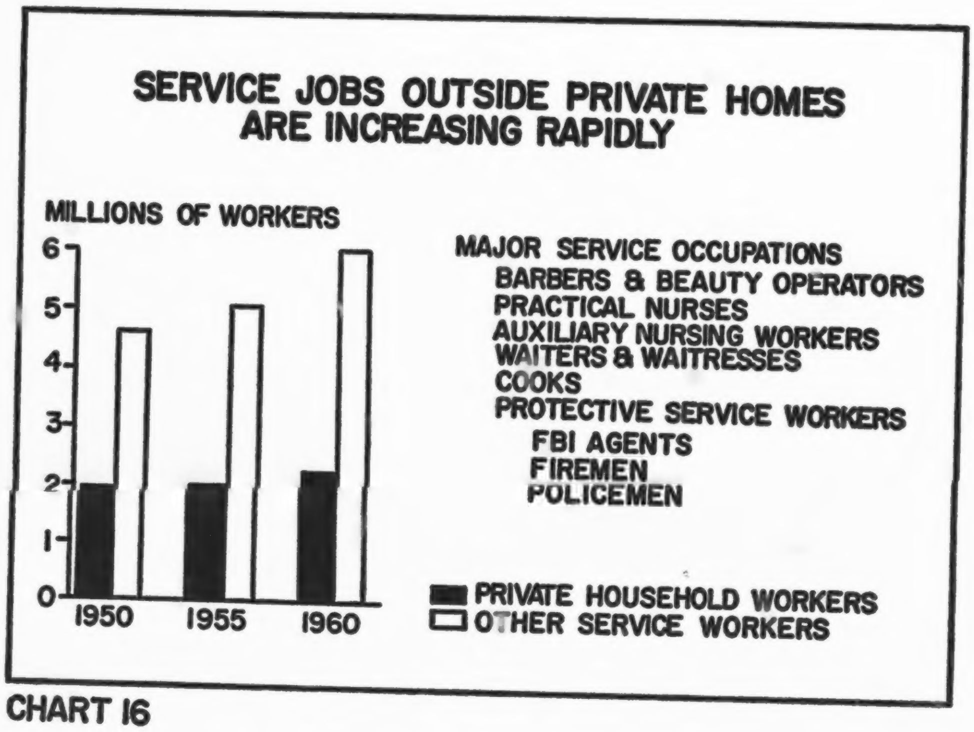
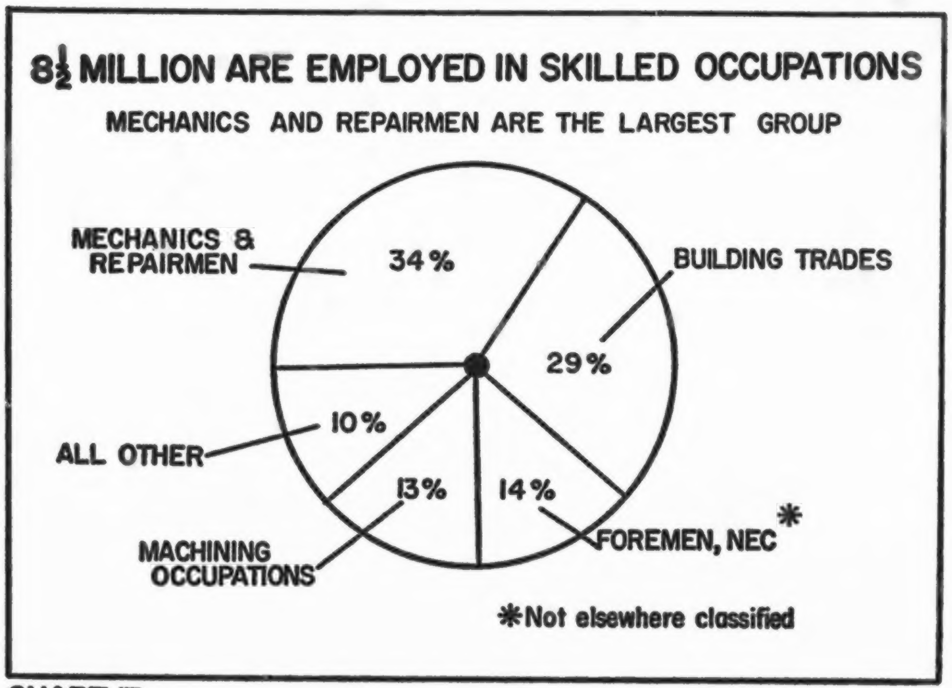


CHART 16

The rapidly growing service occupations are a major source of employment for people with a high school diploma or less. (May increase 40% by 1975.) Included in the service group are such diverse occupations as FBI agents, fashion models, practical nurses, policemen, barbers, and restaurant cooks. Because these occupations cover a wide range of skills, they afford opportunities for workers with entirely different backgrounds and personal qualifications. Many require considerable skill and training; others comparatively little.

There were 9 million in skilled occupations in 1964. The Nation has a great need for skilled workers. The number will increase by about one-quarter by 1975. Over 5 million must be trained to



8½ MILLION ARE EMPLOYED IN SKILLED OCCUPATIONS

MECHANICS AND REPAIRMEN ARE THE LARGEST GROUP

CHART 17

meet the need for skilled craftsmen between 1960 and 1975. More than 2 million will be required to meet the projected growth. More than 3 million will be needed as replacements.

The growing need for mechanics and repairmen to install and maintain the ever increasing quantity of machinery and related equipment in industry and elsewhere will be the major factor in increasing the demand for skilled workers. Included in this group are auto-mechanics, the second largest occupation; maintenance electricians, airplane mechanics, and TV and radio, appliance and business machine servicemen. Growth in building construction will also add to the demand for skilled workers.

The rise in employment of semi-skilled workers between now and 1975 will be less than the average for all workers; nevertheless, 2 million more people will be employed in semi-skilled jobs to meet growth needs; mainly in manufacturing and trade. An even larger number will be needed as replacements. The 12½ million semi-skilled workers employed in 1964 made up the nation's largest occupation group yet. Included in this group are driving occupations, assemblers, sewing machine operators, inspectors, packers and wrappers, welders, gas station attendants, mine operators, and many others.

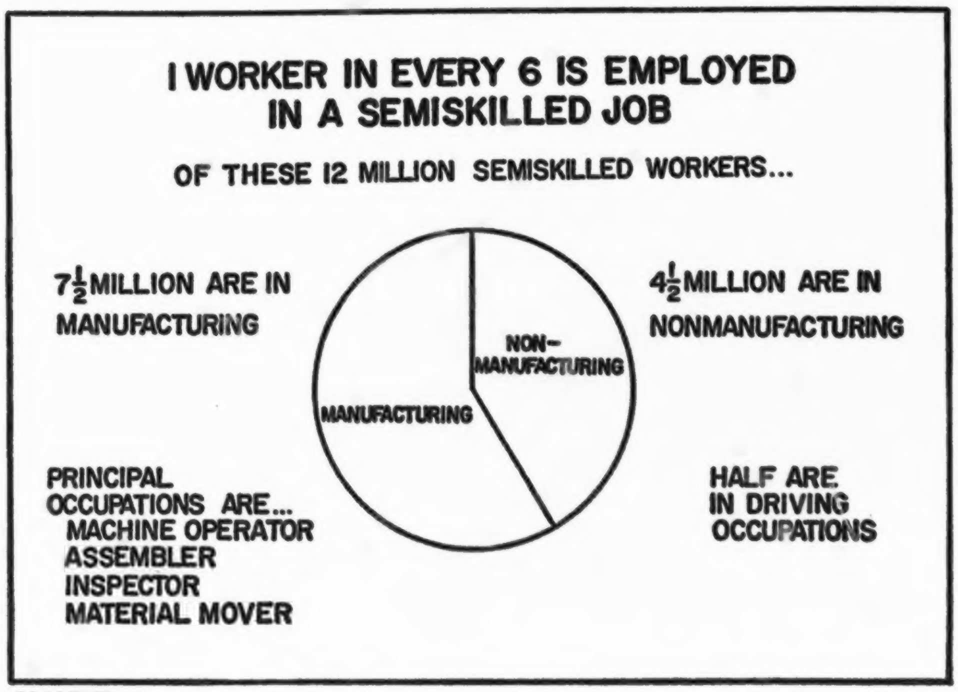


CHART 18

Semi-skilled occupations are the largest source of employment for people with limited education. In 1964, two-thirds of the semi-skilled workers had completed less than four years of high school and nearly four out of ten had not completed any high school work.

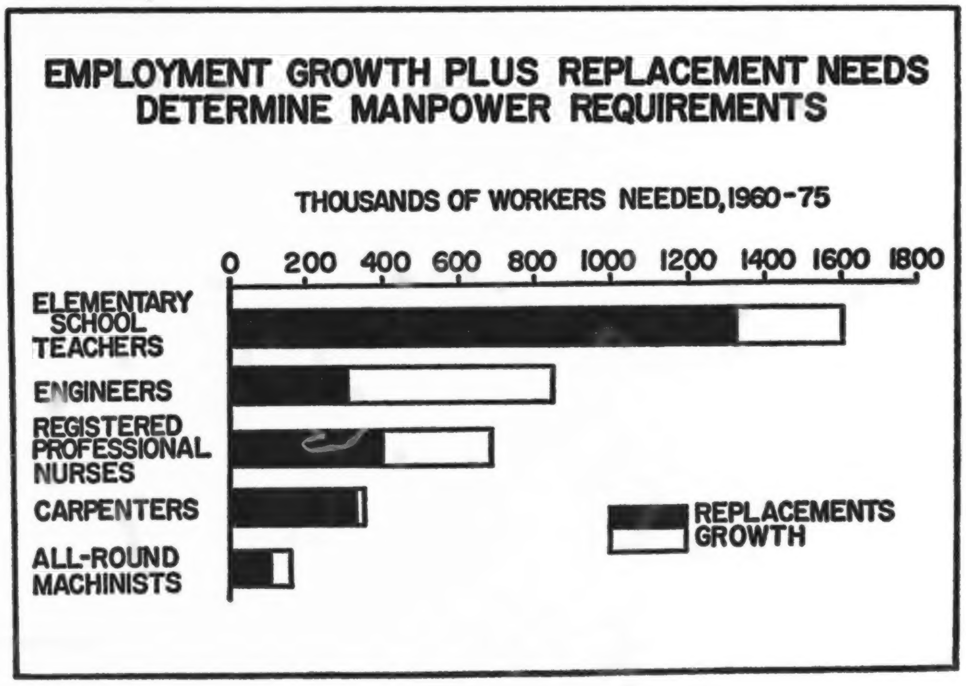


CHART 19

How many people must be trained to meet the nation's needs? What do these projections imply for education and training? First, we must bear in mind that training needs depend not only upon the growth of the economy but also upon the replacement of people who retire, die or leave the work force for other reasons. Indeed, in some occupations, such as elementary school teaching, replacement needs will far exceed the number of workers required for net growth. For the economy as a whole it has been estimated that about 21 million workers will be needed for net growth between 1960 and 1975; but an even greater number will be needed to replace workers who die, retire or leave the labor force.

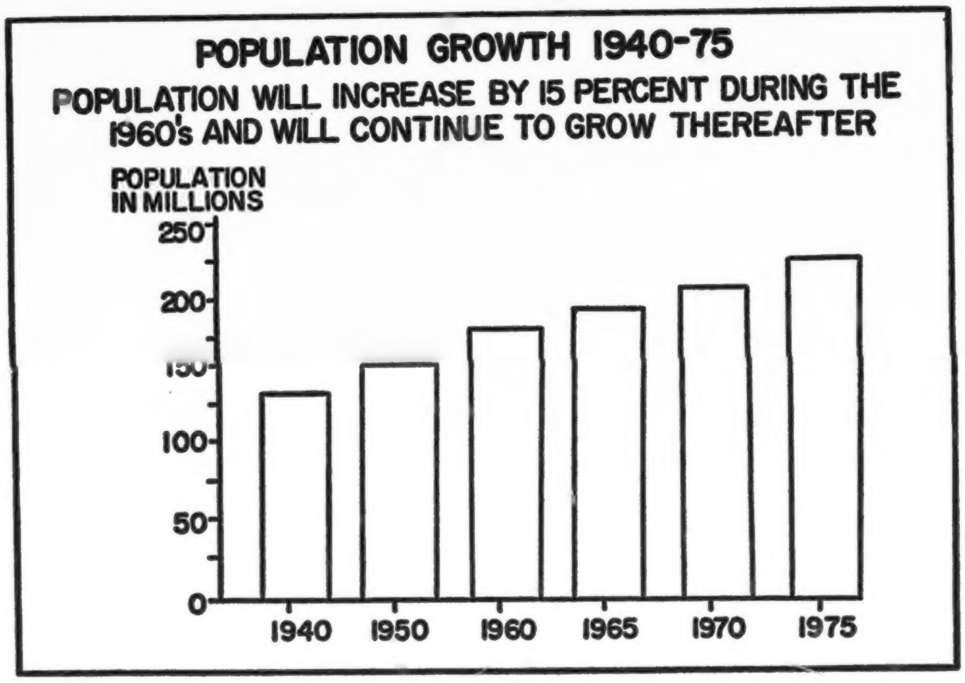


CHART 20

In estimating our future manpower needs and manpower supply, we must first consider population trends.

Population will increase by 15 percent during 1960's and will continue to grow thereafter.

28 million people were added between 1950 and 1960.

28 million more will be added by 1970.

In only 5 years more, between 1970-1975, our population will grow by an additional 17 million people reaching 226 million.

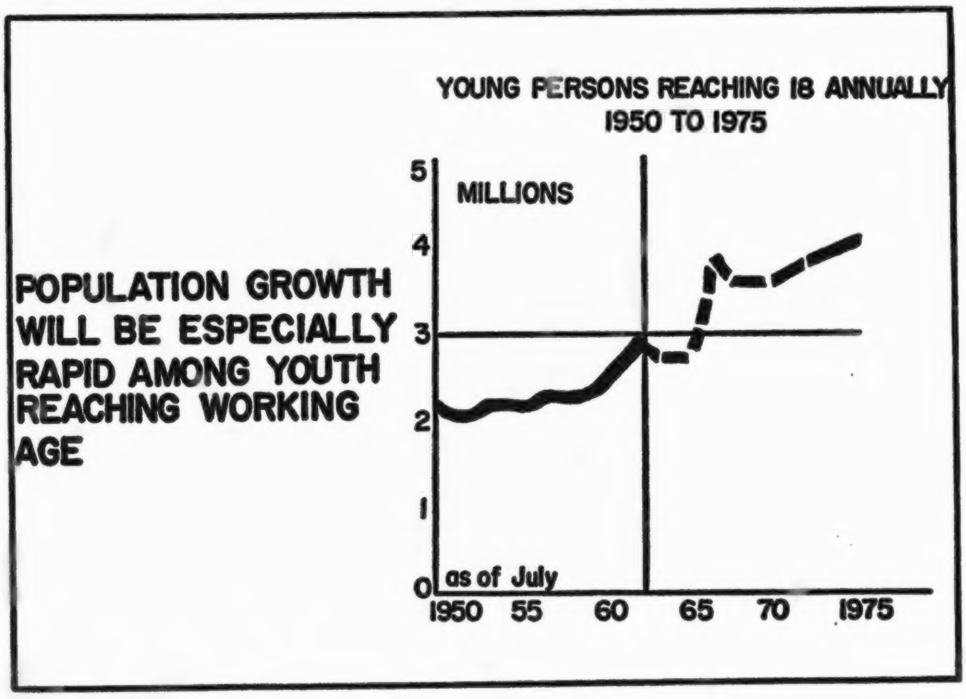


CHART 21

We are experiencing this year the great wave of young people reaching maturity. As you can see in 1965 the number of young boys and girls reaching age 18 is roughly a million larger than last year. and this new annual level will be substantially maintained for the next decade. Age 18 is the year of decision for most young people, who must then decide whether to go to college, seek other kinds of training, or begin their working career. Many young people in this age group are already in the labor force; among young men aged 18 and 19, 35 percent of the students and 92 percent of the non-students are working or looking for work. Students are usually part-time workers.

The large increase in young people will swell school enrollments. By 1975 high school and college enrollments which were already at their peak in the early 1960's will climb to:

8.3 million in colleges (4.9 million over 1960)

21.3 million in high school (over 9 million over 1960). (see chart on next page)

The labor force is growing even faster than the population. The labor force will increase to 93.6 million by 1975; 17 million more than in 1964. The labor force growth will consist mainly of women and young people. The most dramatic increase in the labor force between 1965 and 1975 will be in the younger two age groups; under 25 (29 percent increase) and the 25-34 year group (41 percent). (see chart on next page)

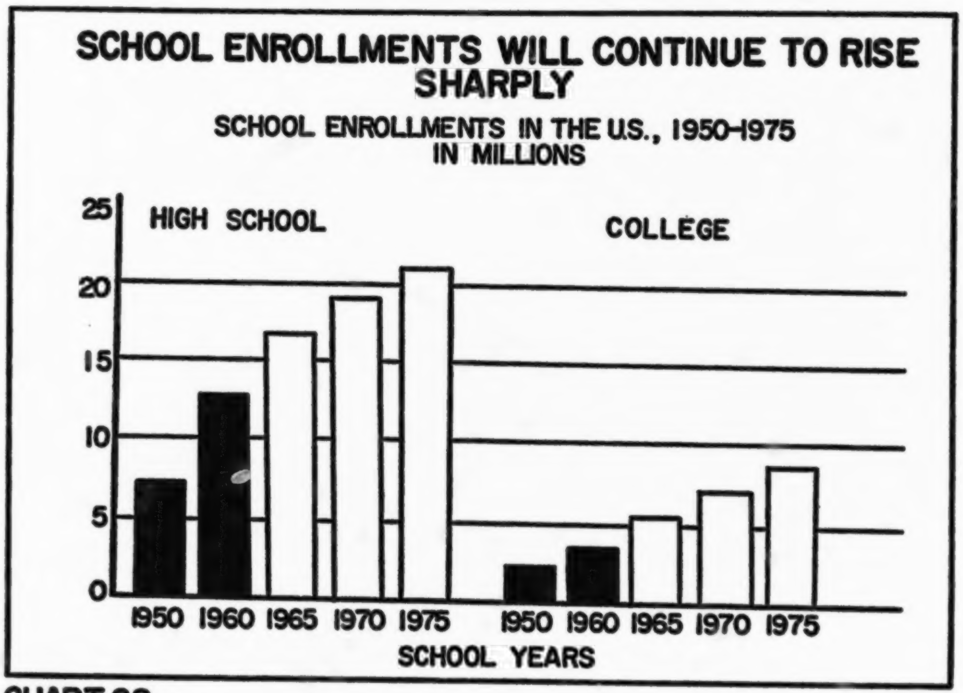


CHART 22

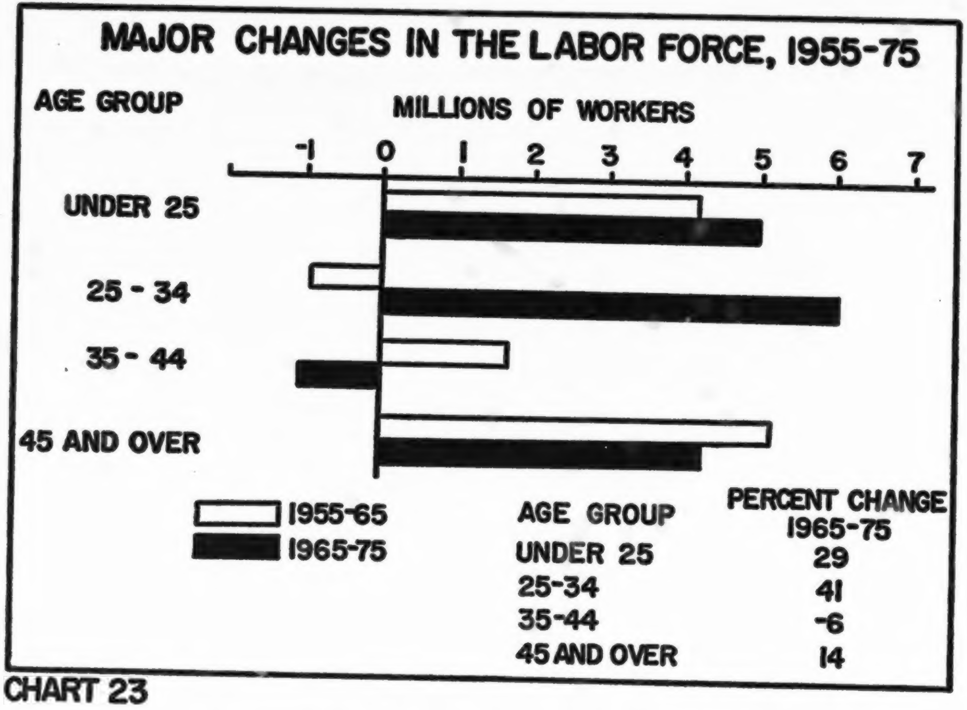


CHART 23

Women were responsible for nearly 60 percent of the growth in the labor force during the 1950's; and they may account for nearly half the growth in the 1960's. Among other things this means that

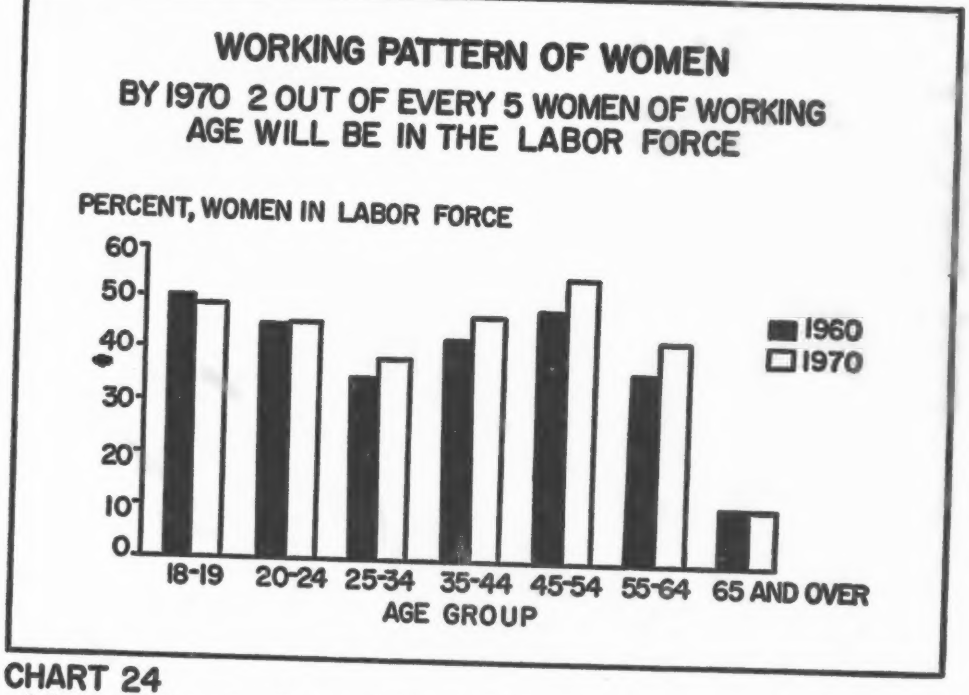


CHART 24

girls should seriously consider their future in terms of careers, not just jobs. Note that the average male worker and the average single woman spend 40 years on the job and even married women with children have an average working life of 27 years.

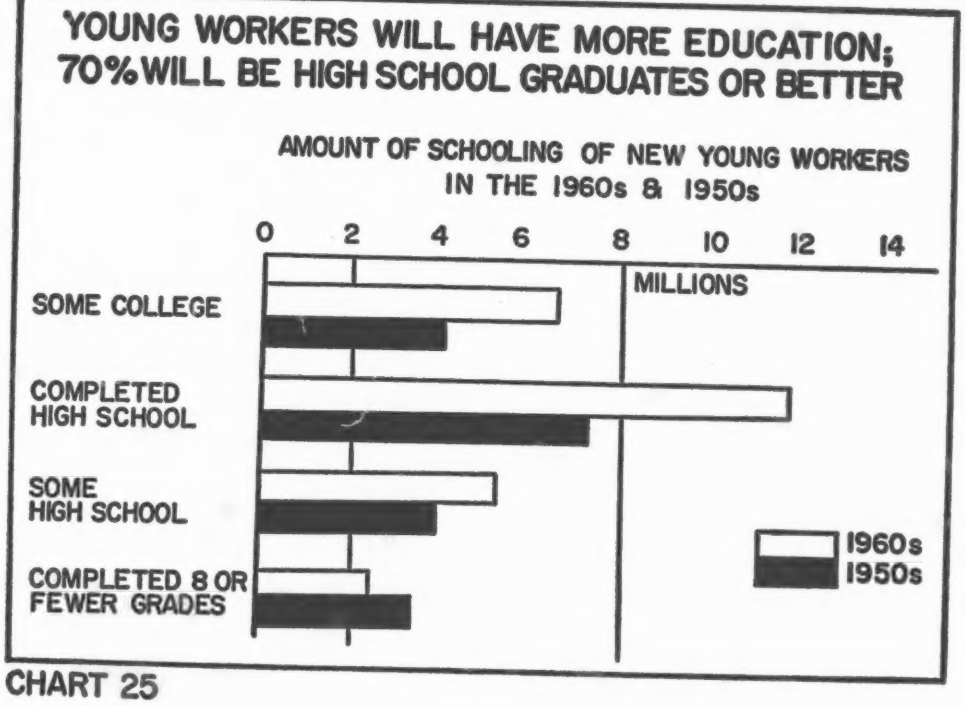
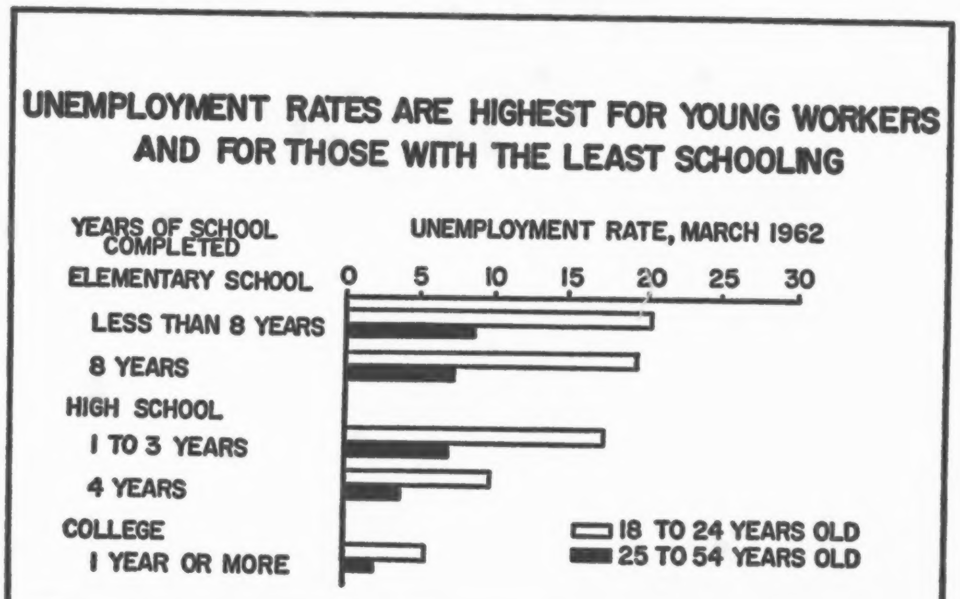


CHART 25

How well prepared are our young people for the world of work? So far as education is concerned, they will have a better basic education than any similar group in the past. In terms of proportion, 7 out of 10 young workers entering the labor force during the 1960 decade will have a high school education or better, compared with 6 out of 10 in the 1950's. Another 12 million new entrants will have high school diplomas in the 1960's compared with 7 million in the 1950's.

Nevertheless, in view of the changes which are in prospect in industries and occupations, the fact that 3 out of 10 new entrants into the labor force will lack a high school education presents a special challenge to communities, schools, parents, and employers. In absolute numbers, 7½ million will have had 3 years of high school education or less and of these, 2 million will have only an 8th grade education or less. These sheer numbers will create keen competition for entry jobs; the actual shrinkage in the kinds of jobs that can be handled by people with little education will make the situation serious for these young workers.



UNEMPLOYMENT RATES ARE HIGHEST FOR YOUNG WORKERS AND FOR THOSE WITH THE LEAST SCHOOLING

CHART 26

Education is particularly important for young people: unemployment rates are higher for young workers and for those with the least schooling. As the level of education rises, the rate of unemployment declines. Unemployment rates fall sharply among workers with a high school diploma and still more sharply among those who have completed a year or more of college.

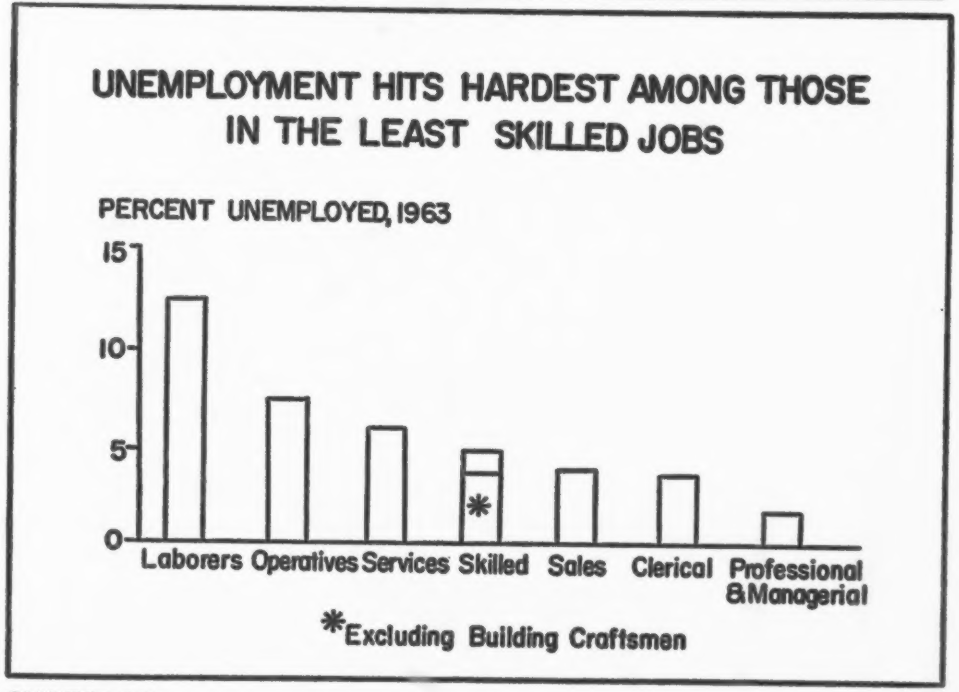


CHART 27

For the unskilled, the untrained, and the undereducated, unemployment is a constant threat. In good times and bad the unemployment rate among these workers is more than twice as high as the average for all employed workers. For example, the unemployment rate for all workers in 1964 was slightly more than 5 percent, among laborers it was over 10 percent, among professional and managerial workers it was only 1.7 percent.

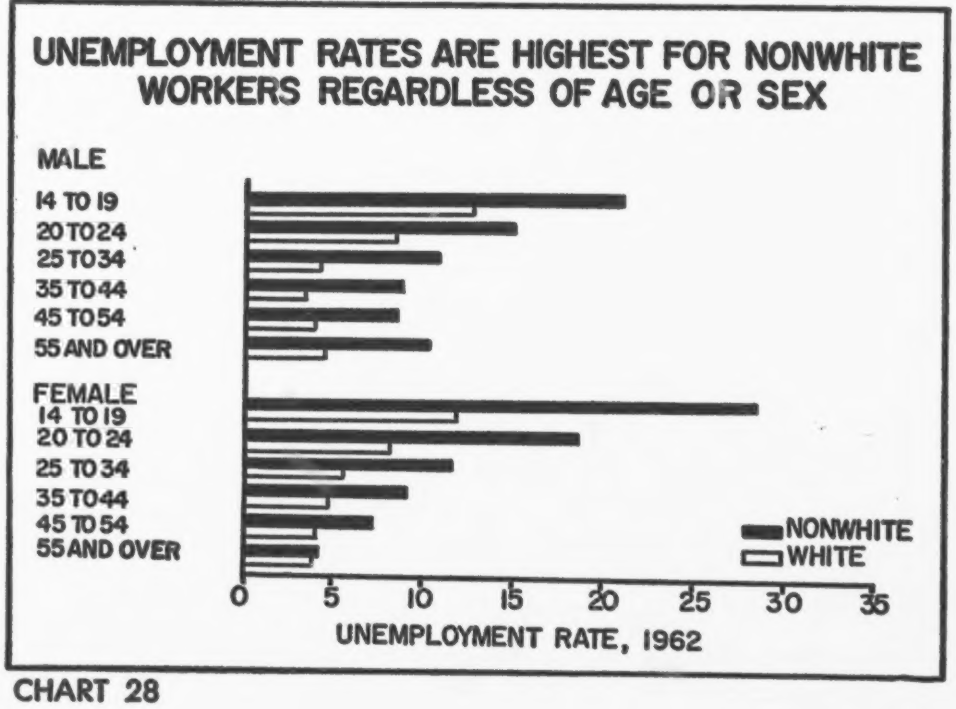


CHART 28

Nonwhite workers face special problems. The unemployment rate among nonwhite workers was more than twice the rate for white workers in 1964. Since 1957 the gap between white and nonwhite employment has been widening, despite some improvement in occupational opportunities since World War II. Long term unemployment is also more prevalent among nonwhite than among white workers.

For nonwhite as well as white workers however, those with more education and training have lower unemployment rates.

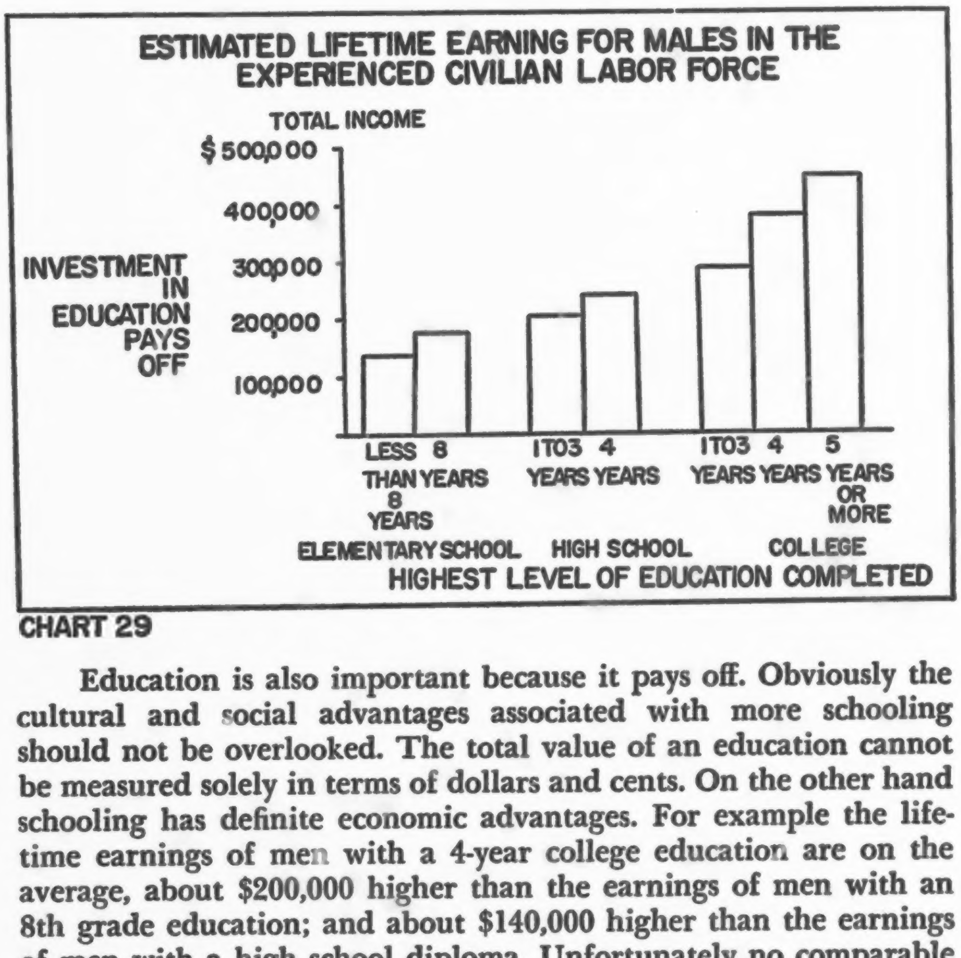

ESTIMATED LIFETIME EARNING FOR MALES IN THE EXPERIENCED CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE

CHART 29

Education is also important because it pays off. Obviously the cultural and social advantages associated with more schooling should not be overlooked. The total value of an education cannot be measured solely in terms of dollars and cents. On the other hand schooling has definite economic advantages. For example the lifetime earnings of men with a 4-year college education are on the average, about $200,000 higher than the earnings of men with an 8th grade education; and about $140,000 higher than the earnings of men with a high school diploma. Unfortunately no comparable data on lifetime earnings for junior college graduates is available. However, information from other sources shows that those with occupational training do better than high school graduates to start, and those with training in technical occupations often command starting salaries higher than those received by graduates from 4-year liberal arts programs with no special major.

Considering the legislation that has already been passed, plus that which is still under consideration, it looks as if we may have the tools that will be needed to tackle this problem. But the job itself will have to be done by the educators, administrators, and the rest of us who work with young people and are concerned with planning education programs. Our responsibilities will be greater than ever before. It is up to us to re-make the future.

9

Implications of Occupational Change for Community College Administration

by

RALPH R. FIELDS

Implications of Occupational Change for Community College Administration

PROFESSOR RALPH R. FIELDS
Teachers College, Columbia University

My task is to analyze the implications of occupational trends for those of us in community college education. I have drawn five occupational trends that I view as of extreme importance to community college educators and particularly to administrators, and I'm very happy to say that Mr. Michael underlined all of them.

The first one is that there are significant differences between those occupations that are increasing and those that are decreasing.

Second, you can draw the generalization that the occupations with above average educational preparation are generally increasing and the occupations with below average or little preparation are decreasing. This is a very important trend, it seems to me, for those of us in community college.

A third trend is that college prepared people are going to be in short supply. Those who are not high school graduates, and in some cases even those who are high school graduate, are very likely to be in long supply. Here again it seems to me that we have an occupational trend that will buttress the importance of what we need to do in occupational education at the community college level.

My fourth major trend which I want to underline is the constant threat of unemployment among certain groups. I was very happy to have Mr. Michael stress the fact that even under conditions of rising unemployment there is a tendency for society to make use of the best prepared people. To say "happy" in a way is to admit that we are selfish, those of us who are interested in the contribution that college can make both to occupational and cultural lives. We would like to see the fruit of our effort utilized. Those of us who are my age can remember when certain oil companies demanded a Bachelor of Arts Degree of those they hired to pump gasoline. It is encouraging to know that while our work may not be utilized exactly on a one-to-one relationship, those people we prepare are going to fare better than some others.

Finally, a rather controversial trend is that the impact of the knowledge explosion, including automation, is very likely to increase. Although I do agree with Mr. Michael that it can be overemphasized, I think we cannot disregard the fact that the whole occupational picture in this country may change very radically within the next two or three decades, very radically as we put to full usage the ability to produce more and more goods with less and less human effort. We're facing the task of learning to live in a different fashion in the next century as over and against the way we live now.

These are the major occupational trends as I see them, and I would say Mr. Michael underlined these as well as referring to some others. I will take these as my guideline as I draw implications.

I want to talk about implications under three headings: (1) The implications of increasing numbers; (2) The changing responsibilities that these occupational trends demand; and (3) The need for experimentation and research.

The first one is that increasing numbers of college students will seek community college education. You will remember Mr. Michael's chart in which the rise in college enrollment was depicted as almost equal to the high school enrollment of 1962. In that chart Mr. Michael has stressed the increase in college enrollment with a great deal of force. Many of these students are going to attend community colleges because of a number of reasons; the assumption that a sharply increasing enrollment in community colleges is ahead of us is, I believe, a sound one. Although I'm going to treat it briefly, I don't want you to think that I don't feel that it is of the utmost importance. The difference between institutions that are rising rapidly in enrollment and institutions that are going along on about the same plane over a long period of time is an extremely significant one. The administrative problems that are faced by an administrator of an institution in which the enrollment is rapidly increasing are quite different from those faced by an administrator with a stable enrollment picture.

Furthermore, the administrator in a community college in which there is to be a heavy emphasis on semi-professional and technical education faces some kinds of problems that the other collegiate adminitrators don't face. Let me try to illustrate this a bit.

In an academic institution with no vocational or professional or semi-professional offerings, increasing enrollment brings an increase in problems, but they are much the same kind of problems as you are used to. You have to look for more teachers, perhaps, but you look for the same kinds of teachers. You look for teachers in the same kinds of places, that is, you go to the universities, etc. On the other hand, if you're in an institution with a heavy increase in semi-professional and technical work, when you expand enrollment you very likely put in new career programs. New career programs demand new kinds of teachers and you've got to find new sources for them. New kinds of programs demand new kinds of classrooms and new kinds of materials. You've got to become acquainted with a different world. You have to develop relationships with new segments of business and industry and semi-professional life. In other words you work with new people and new ideas. Those of you who have been engaged in two year diploma program in nursing could immediately bear this out. If you introduce a program of a two year associate degree nursing program into your college you begin to associate in a very intimate fashion with hospital administrators, with medical people, with the chairman of the county medical association, with the head of the nursing association, with nursing directors, and the like. You begin to learn a new area of vocational life.

Although expansion of career programs brings problems and challenges, in my judgment this expansion is essential if the community college is to be a live and viable institution. In my judgment a tendency to squeeze career programs out because we are going to have plenty of students in the arts and sciences will utimately make the two year college into a very weak institution. It seems to me that in the arts and science fields we are trying to compete with the champions on their own ground. What advantages do two year colleges have in the fields of arts and science? But if arts and science are combined with other kinds of programs it makes the community college a much stronger institution. Comprehensiveness has many problems, but it does seem to me it does have one very significant contribution—it identifies us as a different kind of institution than the arts and science college and it gets us out from under the appendage "junior."

My second major heading was that of increasing and changing administrative responsibilities. We have a number of challenges coming from the occupational trends as we have had them reviewed for us.

1. It seems to me that anybody who accepts the presidency or deanship of a two year community college which is dedicated to a comprehensive program, including career programs of the kind we've been talking about, takes on the responsibility for studying and promoting semi-professional career education. I don't see how a man can take the administrative responsibility for an institution with these declared purposes and not take on the responsibility for promoting a comprehensive program. I don't mean blind adherence to the things that have been said about occupational education at this level but I mean that he devote himself as intelligently and as dedicatedly as he can to the task—this purpose of the college is a primary one. I'm not sure I go as far as to say a man who doesn't

place an emphasis on career education equal to that on general liberal education should not take the job. But I would say that he ought to have as near equal an interest as he can develop. Pious, platitudinal acceptance of career programs in community colleges will no longer suffice. Career programs have got to be pushed and pushed vigorously if we're going to meet the kinds of challenges that Mr. Michael's account of trends indicated.

Interest and concern for semi-professional education means that the administrator of a community college has to cooperate with a wide variety of community groups rather than a narrow segment. It seems clear that if you're going to have programs in a wide variety of undertakings you're going to have to cultivate relationships with the people in your region and in your community who are concerned about these particular types of careers. This also means that the administrator takes on the responsibility of educating his board regarding these fields. Although boards are made up of people from a variety of callings, by and large the typical college board member comes on to it with relatively little appreciation of a different kind of collegiate undertaking than the typical arts and science program. Usually he is the product of either an arts and science education or a professional program. Frankly, many trustees at first do not accept the idea that the preparation for some of these other callings are a legitimate part of collegiate education. This makes for an educational problem. The community college can make a very real and vital contribution by educating workers at this level and it is up to the administrator to make sure that his board is fully and completely informed, and as fully and completely behind the move, as possible. A community college board that doesn't have on it a majority of members who believe in this undertaking can't give the kind of support that the career programs are going to have to have.

Another item that I would like to underline is that you not only need figures from the federal and state level, but if you're going to plan programs in your own institution you've got to find out what is happening in your own community in these various kinds of work. You've got to study your own community.

Another somewhat similar implication is that the chief administrator needs to look for his administrative colleagues with competencies in technical and semi-professional education. Administrators with backgrounds and appreciations in occupational education sufficient to lead faculties at the community college level are scarce. I don't need to tell this group how scarce they are. Universities have not fulfilled their role in producing these kinds of people. Many times you will have to take a person ill-prepared for leadership in the vocational role and hope that he grows into it. But it is essential, in my judgment, that you do have on your staff administrators capable of performing the leadership role in career programs.

I also want to mention the many implications for our guidance program, some of which we are inclined to overlook. Comprehensiveness of an institution calls for comprehensiveness in the appreciations and knowledges of the guidance personnel. If you don't have guidance personnel who know enough about your occupational program to educate the guidance personnel of the region's high schools, then you are not going to get students into your career programs. Parents also need a constant education, and guidance staffs need to build up relationships with the whole industrial and business community.

Finally, let me say a word about instructional staff because I think of all the implications this is the most important of all. As we build institutions and develop within them programs that are unlike other collegiate programs, the problem of attracting able and competent staff is a problem. One of its major aspects is that we have to find ways of making our collegiate teaching positions just as attractive to the career program instructor as to the academic collegiate type of instructor. I didn't say any more so, I simply said the equivalent of. It means we have to find ways of developing salary schedules that reward competency which may have been acquired in a different way than obtaining a higher degree. People can grow in competency in ways other than graduate study. Administrators need to be vigorous and courageous in recognizing that faculty competency is valid for monetary and promotional reasons regardless of where the competency comes from.

Furthermore, we need to devote considerable thought to creating an administrative organization that is favorable for career programs. One way is to visualize an integrated operation in which career programs are integrated within the same divisions as academic programs in those areas. In other words, career programs that are related to science would be in the science division. Separateness of organization for career programs can of course be defended. One advantage is that it focuses attention on them. I'm not saying that every institution ought to have the same organization, I'm simply saying that as administrators if we place importance on career programs as a part of our instructional program, then we've got to create an administrative organization that gives the career program people the opportunity to see themselves as equally important to the general education and transfer programs.

Let me turn now to the third area of administrative responsibilities for experimentation and research in the field of occupational education. I suspect that we would all agree with the general statement that we don't know nearly enough about different approaches to occupational education. This is true of both the undergraduate and graduate levels in the preparation of people for the professions. The preparatory program in medicine has been under criticism, and engineering education has certainly been criticized a great deal. Many of you are familiar with the reports and criticisms of business programs in the four year colleges. Teaching education has certainly come in for its share of criticisms in the last several years. So the fact that we don't know enough about the best ways of educating nurses and dental hygienists and technicians related to the engineering profession and secretaries is not surprising. But its not being a surprise doesn't mean that it isn't a problem on which we have to concentrate. The trend at the technological level of moving from a understanding of "how" to a sufficient understanding of "why" is important, especially for technicians who work along side the professional.

As we consider some of the various occupational areas, the problems appear a bit different. What kind of science should be included in the so-called engineering related technologies? How much science does a technician need to know? I have heard directors of engineering-related programs say "our program is just as tough as the engineering program because we teach them the same science that they have to have in order to go on in engineering." I say this is wrong. If the student can do that successfully what is the reason for his not going on and becoming an engineer? There ought to be a difference between a program for technology and a program for engineering if there is a difference in the work that is to be done.

Certain career programs in two year colleges ought to be as intimately related to the social sciences and the humanities as others are to engineering, mathematics and physical sciences. These are more difficult to identify, yet we saw in the occupational trends that Mr. Michael presented that service occupations are one of the growing trends. Teaching, recreation, welfare, public administration, library, planning, government agencies of all kinds—in these and other fields we need to identify semi-professional work and prepare technicians to do it.

Women appeared in Mr. Michael's array of occupational trends several times. We all see an increasing tendency for women to work longer and perhaps to have two or three employment careers rather than simply one as most male workers do. Many women interrupt their work for the task of raising a family. The community college finds itself right in the middle of this whole problem of vocational preparation for women, not only for the first career but also for the second and sometimes the third career. Why? Because the community college is very close to the woman's world in the sense that she can come to it for part of a day or evening, she can participate in a preparatory program within her own community, whereas it would be very difficult to leave the family and travel 50 or 60 miles. How many community colleges have thoroughly studied the career patterns of women in their region? The need for thorough studies seems to me to be one of the most challenging implications coming out of the trends we heard about today and saw the tremendous increase in the number of women working.

We have to be aware of our continuing relationships in career programs with all adults. Not brought out today but nontheless of great importance is the fact that more and more workers are having to be retrained several times during their normal occupational lives. As with women so with all adults—the community college is the obvious institution to do a good deal of this. How many workers can afford to go away for a year or two from the community in order to get the new skills, the new understanding, the new competencies? We ought to know much more about the re-training patterns needed in our own communities.

The relationship of general, liberal education in the arts and sciences to preparation for specific occupations needs to be mentioned. It seems more clear year by year that it is an imperative ingredient in the career preparation pattern that we're talking about. The two years of the community college constitute a dreadfully short time to mix the two ingredients of general and specialized education even with the most imagination that we can muster. The problem of standards of attainment in the general education program in the arts and sciences is a bugaboo, for if we are going to open our doors to youngsters who have less than the usual amount of verbal ability and are going to put them in the same arts and sciences classes and treat them the same as we treat transfer students, we're courting disaster. But on the other hand, how to adjust these standards realistically and then defend them if they are different—these are very real problems on which we need more evidence. Experimentation needs to be realistic and should be very honestly reported.

Another word—the whole question of cooperative work experience has been relatively unexplored by two year colleges, certainly not experimented with to the extent that seems to me to be jusified. The community setting for the two year college gives an opportunity for exploring different patterns of preparation as over and against colleges in which the youngsters are removed from everyday contact with the community. Several institutions have carried on research and reported it, but I think many more of us need to look realistically at patterns of preparation different from the common one of two years of full time class work. There is also the critical need to explore the possibilities of independent and individualized study. Honors programs are receiving a great deal of attention in our four year institutions and in our universities, and this is fine. But we need to stress the fact however that independent study is not just an ingredient of honors program. There is no learning that doesn't actually eventuate from independent study. The whole question is how to help youngsters of varying abilities make the best use of their learning opportunities, and my feeling is that we have students at practically all school levels too much in classes and not enough on their own. You don't have to share that belief with me, however, in order to believe that we don't know enough about the use of programmed instruction and the like to substitute other learning activities for the typical classroom pattern.

Let me turn to my final point, which is that community colleges need to think through institutional approaches to faculty research. We've tended to make such statements as "the community college is not a research institution, it is a teaching institution." To a certain extent this has been true. Also heard is the statement that the universities are the research institutions—they are the ones which should carry on experimentation. And to a certain extent this also is true. Liberal arts colleges have had much the same problem because most of the liberal arts colleges are just as much teaching institutions as are community colleges and ordinarily do not have on their staff individuals who have elected to give most of their energy and time to research in their particular discipline. But it seems to me that the community college must take a fresh look at the need for research in career education and ought to develop policies which will encourage staff members to experiment and to report their experiments in as scientific terms as possible and appropriate, thus joining with other experimenters in adding to what we know about our teaching problems. Consequently, I would make a plea for the need to take a fresh look at faculty policies in order to encourage realistic and productive faculty research on these persistent problems. To the extent that we can encourage that kind of research, to the extent that we can forward it, to the extent that we can share it, to that extent we are in much better shape for taking advantage of our own uniqueness.

10

Developing and Maintaining Effective Curriculums in the Two-Year College

by

WILLIAM G. DWYER

Developing and Maintaining Effective Curriculums in the Two-Year College

William G. Dwyer, President
Board of Regional Community Colleges
Boston, Mass.

Idenification of Guiding Forces

The emergence and rapid growth of the junior or community college are the direct result of the educational void which was not filled by other types of training or educational institutions. The two-year college offers post-secondary education to the high school graduate or young adult in curriculums which parallel those of the lower division of a four-year college or in the broad range of occupationally oriented programs requiring normally about two years of attendance. The open-door policy of admissions has implications which the colleges have not realistically faced, much less resolved. Purpose or philosophy must dictate practice.

To accept for full-time study any high school graduate or person of post-high school age means that the student body represents the complete diversity of abilities, interests, needs, ages, and experience. The conglomerate can be accepted to the community college, but any one individual cannot be considered qualified to enroll in every program. Some colleges reason that the student be given free choice; when he has bloodied his head on a program beyond his ability or preparation, he is then better able to rationalize that his immediate sights require adjusting. Other colleges assign to guidance and counseling the responsibility for placing the student in the appropriate slot. Such placement may be a final determination, a growth pattern, an exploratory program, or a removal of deficiencies. For the student who will transfer to the four-year institution, the community college performs a service which requires only an alert registrar who can communicate to the academic division what courses or subject matter areas will receive full credit at what colleges for which majors. In this service capacity, the community college has only the responsibility of matching students with courses and requirements for transfer; the community college has no legal nor moral nor educational justification for imposing its own arbitrary requirements on this student.

On the other hand, terminal or occupationally oriented programs must reflect the educational philosophy of the community college. Enough has already been printed and spoken about the education of the whole person. A specific vocational or technical skill can at these times be considered as little more than a means for keeping a person economically solvent on a temporary basis, with subsequent training in new fields a foregone procedure. If, however, the community colleges do not develop a realistic program for providing the individual with at least a basis for the knowledge, concepts, attitudes and responsibilities desired in all human beings in a free society, the colleges must face the charge of building-in a cultural, civic and personal deprivation which denies any constructive educational philosophy.

Among the forces guiding curriculum development is the adult who is not interested in degree requirements but is interested in an education. Feature writers, educators, and passing observers have all expressed the need for adults to continue their education. The rapidly changing world of work, economics, society, leisure, and politics requires an organized program to provide a basis for the individual to acquire new skills, to develop new criteria for judgments, to place in proper perspective the new or developing forces which affect daily living. Among the most critical influences on curriculum development is the newly awakened consciousness to the world-old problem of peoples who are culturally, socially and economically deprived. These people don't need an elementary school education; they need an adult program in elementary skills and principles.

To state a philosophy, to identify some guiding forces, to select a few characteristics of a student body, these factors do little more than define the limits of a problem. To pose a question is not to offer a solution; to take a stand on an issue is not to make progress. There is no intent to conclude this presentation with a question mark.

Implications and Implementations

Fortunately, community colleges have not established nor adopted a set of traditions. In practice, however, presidents, deans and faculties have been guilty of translating their own experiences and frustrations into community college curriculums. When a college advocates an open-door policy of admission, the traditional offerings of freshman English, History of Western Civilization, Introduction to Sociology, and Principles of Psychology do not and were not intended to be the educational answer for students of all abilities, interests and experience. The skill of expression and communication, the manipulation of figures, and understanding of man's role in history and in personal development, these are desirable, but the quality of such a program depends on the degree to which a course takes a student from an indefinite point of reference to a given conclusion. A course in nuclear physics is not quality education when the student has had minimum mathematics, no physics and no chemistry. When such a philosophy is stated, there immediately arises the cry of water-down courses, high school levels subjects; but has anyone ever been apologetic about teaching a beginning foreign language, or typing, or shorthand, or chemistry on the "college" level?

The general education for the transfer student is dictated by a receiving college, but the general education for the non-transfer student has been at best an adaptation of the liberal arts tradition. New approaches have been developed for the study of physics, biology, and mathematics, but the real challenge in curriculum development is in a new approach to the teaching of history, sociology, psychology and the humanities for the non-transfer student. I should be unfair to the few, isolated, dedicated teachers who have struggled with this problem if I did not acknowledge their efforts in several of the areas of general education, but such programs are piecemeal and are usually developed in spite of, not because of, the practice and philosophy of the college.

The development and maintaining of curriculums designed to provide a student with knowledge and skills for a specific occupation are extremely difficult. The usual procedure is to overhear a comment by someone from the Chamber of Commerce, an industrial committee, or an agency. A job is identified; employees are scarce. The community college then conducts a survey or entices the interested group into supplying some statistics. The responsible administrator next discreetly inquires from his colleagues where the program is offered and by what community college. The curriculum is then developed from a catalog by changing course titles and rewording course descriptions. At this point, an advisory committee is formed for the sole purpose of approving the duplicated program which is circulated at the first meeting. The strategic value of such approval is that the college board of trustees is almost mandated to endorse this new venture by the college. The advisory committee serves the further function of relieving the administrator of all responsibility for the program if students don't clamor for enrollment in the new curriculum.

For the administrator to be where he might overhear the remark that trained personnel are in short supply is important. To make a study of the demand for such personnel is a basic step. To survey what has been done in other areas acknowledges the value of experience. An advisory committee is a valuable instrument for curriculum development and evaluation. Obviously the issue at hand is: how are the activities and personnel used. For several years, we have been feeling the pressure by some professional agencies to include calculus in most of the engineering-related technical programs. Only last week the U. S. Office of Education at its National Clinic on technical education was stressing the need for calculus. New York State has just published the results of an intensive technical manpower study which covered the last two or three years. On the basis of what mathematics was "generally needed" and "needed in a substantial number of cases," ten curriculums representative of technologies ranging from drafting to mathematics technician specified trigonometry without exception in every curriculum. Advanced algebra was three—"generally needed" and three—"in a substantial number." Analytic geometry was noted only three times "in a substantial number," and only for the mathematics technician was calculus even mentioned, and naturally as "generally needed." Calculus was mentioned as needed "in a substantial number" of cases in only one other curriculum. A couple of years ago, we were involved in identfying what competence is actually needed by a medical laboratory technician. The pathologist, the advisory committee, began with college algebra, college chemistry, college physics. At the conclusion of our discussion about mathematics, he stated that the technician really needed only simple arithmetic, how to handle proportions and simple equations. Curriculums must be developed realistically in terms of the knowledge and competence actually needed in a given area of work.

Since the community college is philosophically committed to providing educational opportunities for the greater portion of post-high school youth, occupational education must be geared to a wide range of abilities. To repeat, a quality curriculum is one which identifies and teaches for the actual knowledge and competence needed in that occupation; to require unrealistic, or academically more difficult, achievement does raise standards but lowers quality. A nursing applicant no longer needs Latin; a secretary doesn't need college algebra . . . she will profit more from a course in human relations or child growth and development. Curriculum developers must identify within each occupational area the levels of ability necessary for success. This principle applies to engineering-related technologies, occupations in the health-related fields, in welfare, social service, recreation, urban renewal, clerical, business, sanitation . . . the list could go on, dependent on the needs and interests of students, the service region and the national economy.

By way of example: there is a city in this country well-known for certain enticements. A curriculum to be initiated within the year is that of slot-machine technician. Obviously, this is a highly specialized field, but from a personal study I can vouch for the need, not so much for repair as for adjustment.

Evening and extension division enrollments indicate to some degree the number of adults who are continuing their education. Just as the characteristics of the young adult determine not only what is to be taught but also how it is to be taught, so it is with the older adult. Programs are not organized for the person with a background of experiences and maturity quite different from that of the 17- to 21-year old student. Curriculum content must also be adapted for students in special programs, particularly those related to the culturally deprived. Agencies concerned with research could perform a tremendous service to the colleges and, therefore, to students if distinguishing characteristics in such students could be identified. Some work has been done in this area, but the conclusions are neither extensive nor well known.

Although most of the observations in this presentation are related to curriculum development, constant evaluation of program must depend on the principles which justified the program at its inception. Our greatest challenge and need are innovation of new curriculums. The content is available if we but use the resources already at hand. The world of work is constantly changing and curriculums must adjust as these changes occur. Probably the best concluding statement is . . . for a curriculum to be current, it must be fluid.

11

Encouraging Constructive Faculty-Administrator Relationships

by

JAMES P. WALSH

Encouraging Constructive Faculty-Administrator Relationships

JAMES P. WALSH, Dean
Monroe Community College
Rochester, N. Y.

Cold war between college administrators and faculty is all too often a familiar condition of academic life. A faculty in revolt and an administration forced to retire to an authoritarian line-staff role reflects upon the efficacy of the educational program of the college. As members of the college community, trustees, administrators and faculty are engaged in a unity of purpose which makes communication between teachers and administrators necessary if educational objectives are to be attained. The Commission on Instruction and Evaluation of the American Council on Education reported that a major source of faculty-adminstrator tensions was the "suppression of information about matters of faculty concern under administrative consideration until it is too late for the opinion of the faculty to be brought to bear upon them." The unique role of the community college and the quality of its program cannot be achieved in an atmosphere of mutual distrust, suspicion and turmoil.

Faculty-administrator conflicts in the community college do not differ substantially from those appearing in four-year colleges and universities, though they may arise from different causes. Fundamental to any discussion, however, is this basic principle: the community college is part and parcel of the system of American higher education; its faculty members have the same rights, privileges, duties and responsibilities accorded other faculty members in that system. On the side of procedure, however, Pullias has pointed out the difficulty:

> There should be organization to allow and encourage the faculty to participate in all decisions that effect their work and welfare. The participation should be responsible and properly related to the administration and governing board. An atmosphere of mutual trust and respect is vital here, but difficult to achieve.

The community college cannot have its cake and eat it too. It cannot have the privileges accorded institutions of higher education while refusing to honor the responsibilities accepted by its sister institutions. Among these responsibilities is the obligation of the community college—its local sponsor, its board of trustees, president and administration—to accord to the faculty its proper domain in participating in the formulation of college policy. Recognizing that trustees, administration and faculty each have a primary responsibility, the faculty itself has a concern beyond the meeting of classes, the grading of papers and the recording of final course grades.

The literature generally recognizes that historically the community college inherited a staff-line type of administration characteristic of public school systems. Uneven though the trend, it is in the direction of greater faculty participation in policy-making. The causes are several:

1. The faculty drive for professional status;
2. The organization of faculty professional associations;
3. The influence of regional accrediting associations in carrying out the recommendations of the American Association of University Professors that conditions of faculty employment be a criteria for accreditation;
4. The emancipation of community colleges from public school control in some states where that control has limited institutional autonomy.

Risking oversimplification, I propose to limit the discussion to the formative years of a new community college, not only because there are so many new institutions, but because the newly-organized community college best illustrates the problems involved in encouraging constructive faculty-administrator relationships. In the newly-organized institution, furthermore, administrators appear upon the scene first, often as much as a year in advance of the faculty, hence becoming the repository of all academic authority. How that administration in the first three or four years of college operation delegates to and shares with the faculty some portion of the total authority which it held in full prior to the reporting of the faculty determines the success or failure of future faculty-administrator relationships.

In community colleges where unhappy relationships between faculty and administrators persist there is common failure of an administration to utilize faculty potential for participation in policy-making and to reserve as an administrative prerogative almost every aspect of the academic program. Ideally all community colleges should have on hand a full complement of administrators and faculty six months to a year before the beginning of classes. Practically, however, the president first appears on the scene, later acquires his chief administrators and then faculty. Most faculty members report a few weeks before the appearance of the first students. Representing a variety of backgrounds, some unacquainted with the purposes of the community college, they arrive somewhat confused but with enthusiasm at the prospects of midwifing the birth of a new institution.

Specifically, let us examine a mythical community college, with a mythical president. Dr. John Chase was elected president of Cheticamp Community College by its newly organized board of trustees in January. Experienced in community college education, President Chase held clear concepts of the role of the community college, its curriculum offerings and the community and students Cheticamp would serve. He had a board mandate to open the doors of the new college eight months later, with a minimum of five hundred students in liberal arts transfer programs. Because he and the board of trustees shared a commitment to the comprehensive community college, they planned to inaugurate a variety of career-oriented programs in the second year of operation.

Two months after his election President Chase reported for duty faced with a seemingly insurmountable task. He found temporary quarters to renovate, hired some of the administrators and faculty and, through his admissions officer, began to accept qualified students. A progressive on matters of faculty-administrator relationships, President Chase was faced with the fact that he held the total administrative power at Cheticamp. He determined his own organizational structure and the details of the initial curriculum and courses for which he had to hire a faculty. In the absence of a faculty, he had no recourse other than to determine a curriculum himself within the limitations of accepted principles, state law and the recommendation of his administrators.

Admitting that the selection of course texts was a faculty responsibility, he did not hesitate to have his administrators select texts by mid-July so they would be on hand for the opening day in September. From neighboring colleges he hired consultants who drew up laboratory specifications and equipment lists as early as May so that installations could be completed by September first. In consultation with his board, he drew up a reasonably competitive faculty salary schedule. He recommended, and his board adopted, policies concerning conditions of faculty employment, academic tenure and academic due process procedures. From past experience he knew that such policies should be clearly stated before the first faculty member appeared on the scene.

President Chase's enthusiasm for the new college was quickly transmitted to the faculty of thirty-five which reported on Septembe first and hurriedly prepared course outlines, reviewed texts they had not selected and checked equipment and supplies which they had not ordered. The first year's operation was reasonably successful. By frequent announcement sessions (which he always refused to refer to as faculty meetings) President Chase informed the faculty of the developments on permanent site, expansion and budget. A few department heads were appointed but vacancies were left in other departments to be filled during the second year. In all his faculty relationships President Chase was aware that his second-year faculty would outnumber that of the first year, would in some instances be better qualified and would supply the balance of department heads. He accorded his original faculty considerable autonomy, but as a wise leader and administrator he did not permit a minority prematurely to adopt practices and to recommend policies that would be binding on the larger faculty to report the second year.

For the second year of Cheticamp's operation, a faculty of 78 reported, including 43 new members and the remainder of the department heads. The president inaugurated an extensive faculty in-service program conducted by himself, his staff and extramural experts on the community college, first, to review for the faculty the purposes of the community college in general and of Cheticamp in particular, second, to involve the faculty in the development of the educational program and planning for the newly selected site. The program served not only to review old matters for the old faculty, but to introduce the larger new faculty to the purposes and objectives of the institution. Frequent meetings of the dean with department heads served as an instrument of communication. As more pressing problems developed from time to time President Chase solved them administratively or by means of *ad hoc* committees. On long-range matters, however, he repeatedly encouraged the faculty to solve problems through an independent faculty organization and its respective committees.

Encouraged by President Chase, the faculty by the end of the second year discussed freely during sessions scheduled at it own request, and not attended by the officers of the administration, various forms the faculty might take to make itself a distinct entity within the college structure. Eventually a temporary president of the faculty and an advisory committee were elected for the single purpose of preparing a draft constitution for presentation to the faculty at the beginning of the third year.

I do not wish at this point to belabor the obvious. The first president of a new community college will shape that institution for years to come. Initially only the president can guide the new institution according to generally accepted academic principles, ruling for the first year or two by benevolent fiat. His task is not easy. The faculty is unknown in quality, undeveloped in its leadership, untried and untenured. Chase of Cheticamp made many decisions with an eye toward early regional accreditation, not for its own sake, but to encourage his faculty to get the house in order by means of an institutional self-evaluation and to have in existence at the college those characteristics found in accredited institutions. The significance of some of his decisions was at first unnoticed by the faculty:

1. In the second week of the college's operation he appointed a faculty committee on athletics to evaluate student requests for an intercollegiate basketball team;
2. Non-teaching professional personnel (librarians, counselors) were employed at faculty rank and salary;
3. Several administrative openings during the second year were filled by faculty members;
4. All concerned with any specialized faculty, teaching or laboratory areas for the new campus construction consulted freely with planners and architects on many occasions. The faculty was fully informed at all times by progress reports from President Chase, architects and administrators;
5. Before the college opened President Chase was in communication with the executive secretary of the regional accrediting agency and familiarized himself with its procedures;
6. Faculty members who taught an occasional evening or summer session class for extra compensation were paid at the same rate as their full-time salary;
7. A few faculty members who proved unsuitable had their cases reviewed by the president with *ad hoc* committees until such time as the faculty's own committee structure was completed. Faculty members not to be granted tenure (fourth year) were notified in writing and by personal notice before the completion of their second year of service. Accepted principles of early notice and academic due process were in effect by the end of the second year.

The major accomplishment at Cheticamp during its third year, with its faculty of 120 and student body of 2,000, was the completion of its faculty organization and the institutional self-evaluation which resulted in accreditation in the fourth year. Some of its administrators had fears that the faculty organization might openly challenge the president because of its new-found independence. But the faculty draft constitution, which underwent many revisions at many meetings, ultimately proved to be a sound, reasonable document reflecting the collective wisdom of the majority of the faculty. Some extreme amendments had been proposed by those on the left and those on the right; they were freely discussed and considered but discarded by the faculty at large. The committees elected by the faculty invariably represented the leadership which had come forward during the first three years.

President Chase successfully weathered the storms of those who thought he was too permissive on the one hand or too autocratic on the other. The arguments held little water since it was quite apparent that the faculty as an independent entity participated in the formulation of college policy. Its committees proposed major changes in the faculty salary schedule, criteria for promotion, procedures for curriculum revision, revisions in academic standards and grievance procedures, all of which were subsequently approved by the faculty and ultimately by the president and the board of trustees with but minor changes imposed by budget limitations mandated by state law.

Faculty participation in curriculum development was a particular concern of Chase. Through administrators and department heads he encouraged continuous evaluation by the faculty of all existing curriculums and courses. The inauguration of new curriculums, however, was not a matter which he referred to the faculty immediately. Because state law made the board of trustees responsible for the adoption of new curriculums reflecting the needs of potential student and community employers, President Chase sought the advice of educational and community leaders through lay advisory boards. In some instances the curriculums under consideration represented new technologies or disciplines beyond the capacities or experience of Cheticamp's own faculty. When, for example, the local iron ore mining industry approached the College to consider the possibility of inaugurating a mining technology curriculum to educate middle-level technologists to supervise the installation and maintenance of improved mine ceiling shoring devices, Chase's faculty was of little help in determining the feasibility of such a curriculum or what subjects it should contain. When the new lay advisory committee recommended the inauguration of the program, Chase sought the advice of his administrators, department heads and faculty curriculum committee on course distribution and content. The recommendation to the board of trustees to add the new curriculum was Chase's prerogative.

By the end of his fourth year Chase successfully shared his authority with administrators and faculty to the extent that all participated in the formulation of policy. While his task of educational leadership was not without the difficulties of all college presidents, he was by then free to devote himself to the ever-pressing issues confronting a community college and the demands placed on his educational leadership. Fortunately for the community college there are other Chases and other Cheticamps.

What are a few of the symptoms of poor faculty-administrator relationships? I suggest as illustrations:

1. The intrusion of administrative controls by state agencies and local sponsors with the acquiescence of the president and the board of trustees;
2. Failure of the board of trustees to consult the faculty in the appointment of presidents and top-level administrators;
3. Failure to maintain open communication between faculty and president and president and trustees.
4. An unpublished salary schedule;
5. Failure to follow principles of early notice;
6. Vague statements on tenure which are legally unenforceable;
7. The absence of published procedures of academic due process on dismissals and actions for cause;
8. The absence of an independently organized faculty after the fourth year of operation;
9. Failure to initiate a request for regional accreditation within the first four years.
10. Maintaining a double standard of compensation for full-time and part-time faculty.

The primary responsibility for encouraging constructive faculty-administrator relationships in a new community college rests with the president. His is the role of leadership that challenges and coordinates individual and group effort in what Bauer has called a "unified dynamic process."

12

The Two-Year College Transfer Student . . . An Interim Report

by

THOMAS SHEA

The Two-Year College Transfer Student . . . An Interim Report

THOMAS H. SHEA
Associate for Institutional Research,
Central Administration State University, Albany

This, as the title noted, is an interim report of a study of two-year college transfer students, or more exactly, a study of two-year college students who transfer to four-year colleges. A major portion of this study is devoted to the search for a "best path," a Northwest Passage, if you would, through the collegiate experience. However, we believe that we will find that just as there was no Northwest Passage, but rather many passages, we will find many roads leading to the baccalaureate degree, some of which are better suited to some than others. The study is still in progress.

The views of what the college experience is or should be are as numerous as there are groups of people, yet the fact that for many it will include attendance at a two-year college is borne out by the increasing portion of undergraduate students enrolled in two-year institutions.

Since it is safe to assume that the increased enrollment in these institutions of higher education will result in an increase in the numbers of students desiring to transfer to four-year colleges, the area of articulation between the two-year and four-year colleges assumes increasing importance. This in turn calls for studies in depth that will enable policy-making to be based on fact rather than hunches and unproven assumptions.

With the assistance of a cooperative research grant from the U. S. Office of Education, the State University of New York, Office of Institutional Research and the State Education Department, Bureau of Research in Higher and Professional Education have undertaken a study to determine if there are systematic relationships between intellectual and non-intellectual characteristics of two-year college students, their perception of the college environment, their attitude toward college, and their success, failure, and/or discontinuance of study prior to and after transfer to the four-year institutions. The study, begun in 1962, is to be concluded in 1967.

The study is being conducted with a selected sample of two-year institutions, from Kansas, Texas, Florida, and New York. A sample of freshmen from four-year colleges, selected on the basis of their reception of significant numbers of two-year college students, is also included in the study. A pilot study of a sample of two-year college students at New York State institutions was conducted for one year before the Cooperative Research study began. In the pilot study, both the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values and the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule were administered to determine which would be used in the major study. Data on attitude toward college and family background were also collected. A comparison was made between the 582 women included in the two-year pilot group and a norm group of 1,289 female four-year college students.

The scores of the two groups were compared on the six scales of the Allport-Vernon-Lindzey Study of Values.[1] The direction of the differences seem to indicate that the entering two-year college female student differs from the four-year student in several important respects: The two-year college student seems to hold values more theoretical, economic, political, and religious, while being less aesthetic and social. When the profile is viewed as a whole, such differences seem to fit a general picture of the girl who is concerned with the *practical* aspects of living.

While the entering male two-year college student does not differ on each scale as the female does, he differs on four of the six: economic, aesthetic, social and religious. He does not differ from the normative group on the theoretical or political scales. It may be inferred that the two-year male college student, much like his female counterpart, is a practical and conforming individual who values what is *useful* and does not as highly value the beautiful or the harmonious or human relationships but does value religious experience.

It may well be that the values of the two-year college student are not such as to permit him easy access to the average four-year institution. If, indeed, the two-year college student does have a different value orientation, then it is possible to assume that he will have a more difficult time entering a four-year institution than a two-year institution which may have a more congruent value system. It would seem apparent that the two-year college provides a means toward higher education for the student who is less aesthetically or socially oriented since social and aesthetic values are held at a higher level in the four-year institutions.

In this regard, the two-year community college may indeed be fulfilling the role of a transitional "value changing" institution.

---

[1] All tables relating to items discussed follow textual presentation.

While present evidence does not lead to the conclusion that the observed difference in values is a socioeconomic one, previous studies, such as Goldsen et al,[2] seem to indicate that the observed differences may, at least in part, be due to such factors. If such is the case, the argument for continuence of the open-door-policy and the establishment of numerous two-year institutions (even if they are uneconomical) seem strong.

In the pilot study of two-year college students referred to earlier, other personality measures were also utilized, among them the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule. This instrument provides measures of relatively independent normal personality variables, which have their origin in a list of manifest needs presented by Murray and others.

The fifteen personality variables derived from Murray's typology and measured by the EPPS are the needs for: achievement, deference, order, exhibition, autonomy, affiliation, intraception, succorance, dominance, abasement, nurturance, change, endurance, heterosexuality and aggression. The higher the score in a particular variable, the more often the subject has chosen statements associated with that variable as being descriptive of himself.

The subjects were 1,372 first-time entering full-time students of three public two-year colleges in New York State. The colleges are situated in various geographical locations in the State and offer curricula of both a terminal, technical, and transfer nature. The students were tested at the beginning of their academic year in the fall of 1962.

The normative group with whom the comparison was made consisted of 1,509 college students—749 women and 760 men in four-year institutions. The students were day or evening liberal arts enrollees at various colleges and universities in the country.

There were differences between mean scores of a two-year college student group and the Edwards normative group of college students on 11 of the 15 scales. Five of the differences, those in deference, order, abasement, endurance, and aggression, were higher for the two-year college group. The two-year college group was lower on the needs for achievement, autonomy, affiliation, intraception, dominance, and heterosexuality.

When contrasted with the Edwards college normative group, it would seem that the two-year college students had stronger perceived needs to defer, to be orderly, to be subservient, to endure, and yet to be aggressive. From the present data, the total group of community college students is unlike the Edwards normative group.

---

[2] Goldsen, R. K., Rosenberg, M., Williams, R. M. and Suchman, E. *What College Students Think.* D. Van Nostrand Co., Inc. New York. 1960.

The conclusions of this study are, of necessity, tentative since further analysis is still being made. However, some speculation may be made concerning the implications of such differences.

The higher need for deference, order, and abasement would seem to indicate that the two-year college group is a somewhat more subdued and subservient group, anxious to please and to have things "go right." Low need for autonomy, dominance, and heterosexuality also fit such a theme. A second theme is one of lower intellectual needs as indicated by a lower need for achievement. While lower need for affiliation and a higher need for aggression and endurance seem not to fit in with the other two themes, it may well be that the picture we see of the two-year college student is one which depicts a less sophisticated person who is more closely tied to the home and yet with a "need" to try himself out, in the "real world" of the college. If, indeed, such a picture is true, then it would seem that the stereotype of the two-year college student has some basis in fact and that the guidance role of the two-year college is indeed of great importance.

The present study may cast some doubt upon the use of the EPPS or the Allport for guidance purposes if reference is not made to normative data relevant to the particular group involved, such as the two-year college student.

If we accept the differences between the two-year college group and the normative group at face value, implications for administration, guidance, and teaching method in the two-year institutions begin to emerge.

In order to obtain additional information on the characteristics of the two-year college student, the Supplemental Student Information Questionnaire was administered in the late fall of 1962 to the same group of entering full-time students. The resulting data covers 1,750 students.

The questionnaire included items on the most important reasons for the student's choice of a particular two-year college and the individuals who most influenced this college decision. There were questions concerned with the student's living arrangements while enrolled at the college, his attitudes towards the college, and the plans he had in the fall of his first year of what he hoped to do following completion of the two-year program. Descriptive information about the high school from which the two-year college student had graduated and the educational and occupational level of the student's parents was also obtained.

In general, the results of the Supplemental Student Information Questionnaire will be reported as a composite of the two-year colleges included, but where it seems particularly relevant the results from each college will be examined individually.

In answer to the question: "What was the most important reason for your entering the institution you are now attending?", over 60 percent of the two-year college students replied, "The program of study offered." Only two other categories were checked by more than ten percent of the student group, finances by thirteen percent and the fact that it was close to home by eleven percent. A metropolitan two-year college and an agricultural-technical institute, both of which offered the Associate in Applied Science program, each had nearly three-quarters of their students choosing to attend because of the program of study. In contrast, an exurban two-year college which offered a strong liberal arts transfer program, had less than a third of its students respond that the most important reason for their attending was the program of study, while over a quarter checked "finances" and another 23 percent "close to home." When combined, the three factors which were important in the choice of a two-year college were; the program of study offered, finances, and close to home, in that order.

The two-year college student reported that the individuals who most influenced his decision to attend that particular college were his parents. This category, "parents," was checked by over a third of the students as their primary influence. One-fourth felt that the guidance counselor had most influenced them, whereas twenty percent credited friends and other students with having the most to do with this decision. High school teachers and administrators and college representatives do not, in general, seem to have been a very important influence.

Sixty percent of the two-year college students in this group were either living at home or with relatives while attending college. Of the remaining two-fifths of the student body, 22 percent were renting rooms and an additional 16 percent checked the category, "other," which includes the dormitory students at an agricultural-technical institute.

When the two-year college students were asked the question, "If you had been given the opportunity, would you have started at some other institution?", over half replied, "no." Forty-one percent, if given the opportunity, would have chosen some place else to attend. Only with the men at the exurban two-year college did these percentages reverse themselves. Over half of these men (54 percent) replied that they would have preferred to have started at some other institution.

When asked the related question, "Do you feel that by attendance at the institution you are now attending you have missed something of college life?", the answers were almost evenly divided among "yes," "no" and "don't know," with the largest percentage, 39, replying "no," they did not feel they had missed anything of college life. In general, more women than men felt that they had missed something.

Related to the previous two questions was an item asking the two-year college student what type of institution he would choose for his own children. Nearly sixty percent would want their children to attend four-year institutions, either public or private. The responses "Community-junior college" and "Junior college and transfer" were selected by only a third of these two-year college students. Though these students seem to be generally satisfied with the college they are attending, a majority indicating that they prefer that college to any other and most feeling that they had not missed anything of college life by their choice of a two-year college, a majority would prefer a four-year institution for their own children, rather than a two-year college.

Half of the students in these institutions indicate they they intend to go on to further education in another college following completion of their program in the two-year institution. Even in the two colleges offering only technical programs forty percent anticipate, in the fall of their first year, that they will do further college work. There is a sharp contrast between the responses of men and women in this group to this item. In general, over half of the women students plan to seek employment after their two years of college work, whereas over half of the men plan to go on to further education and only one-quarter plan to seek employment.

An analysis of the responses to the questions dealing with the highest educational level attained by the two-year college student's mother and father shows that 67 percent of the mothers and 60 percent of the fathers had a high school education or more. At the bottom of the scale of educational level, three out of ten parents had not graduated from high school. On the other hand, three out of ten had had some education beyond high school with eleven percent of the total group college graduates.

The largest occupational area of the students' fathers was "Craftsmen, skilled labor." This area accounted for nearly 30 percent of the fathers; 18 percent were managers or proprietors and an additional 15 percent professionals or semi-professionals. The fourth largest category was "Unskilled labor" with 12 percent.

Also administered were thirty items from the College Student Attitude Inventory. These items were concerned with the student's attitudes towards the quality of the advice and the level of instruction he had received. The responses to these items showed that the majority of the two-year college students were well satisfied with the advice and instruction offered at these institutions.

After analyzing the data obtained by means of the pilot study, and after a preliminary overview of data collected on the four-state sample, it was felt that information on students transferring to the State University, readily available at The Office of Institutional Research, should be utilized in preparing tentative benchmarks for comparison with the study data.

Data were obtained from 1,793 students transferring to the four-year colleges of the University (excluding the University Center at Buffalo). Of this number, 52 percent had previously attended a two-year college. Since approximately one-half of the students transferring to the four-year colleges were from other than two-year colleges, and similar data were available, it was decided to compare the two groups as well as looking at the two-year transfers.

Two-thirds of the two-year transfers originated from the 28 community colleges, most of which offer both university-parallel and occupational programs. More noteworthy are the one out of five from the six Agricultural and Technical Colleges, where nearly all programs are classified as occupational. The community colleges, under local sponsorship, are designed primarily to meet local needs, while the state administered Agricultural and Technical Colleges draw their students from the entire state.

The largest group of transfer students, both two-year and four-year, are enrolled at the Arts and Science Colleges. The community college students tend to transfer to the Arts and Science Colleges in greater proportion than do the Agricultural and Technical College transfers. The situation is the reverse at the Specialized Colleges. The proportions at the University Centers are approximately the same.

The classification of the transfer students from the two-year colleges was also looked at. Although the data do not relate to graduates of the two-year colleges only, but to all transfers, the classification data in this regard are significant. Slightly more than half of the two-year transfers received junior status, and one-third were classed as sophomores. This pattern for the University as a whole held for the Arts and Science Colleges, but a notable difference may be seen at the University Centers and at the Specialized

Colleges, where at the former 3 out of 4 were granted junior status, and at the latter only one-third received junior status. The programs offered at the Specialized Colleges and the number of Agricultural and Technical transfers partly explains this.

In terms of the programs to which the two-year college transfers are enrolled, they distribute themselves as follows — one-third, the largest group, enrolled in education programs, the second largest group, 25 percent, enrolled in Liberal Arts or Social Sciences. Next in order of size came Science and Math, then Business, at 17 and 13 percent, respectively.

These patterns did not hold within the types of colleges. For example — almost half of the University Center transfers from two-year colleges were in Business and none in Education. If those in Liberal Arts who were meeting certification requirements were listed as Education, the resultant figure would amount to only 20 percent. No Business programs are available at the Arts and Science Colleges.

Approximately one-half of the two-year transfer students live in dormitories, which is in sharp contrast to their residence while at the two-year college, while 27 percent of the two-year transfer students live at home, 37 percent of the four-year transfer students live at home. It would seem that the two-year transfer student is going away to college, whereas the four-year transfer student is coming home to live. It may also be due in part to the fact that a larger proportion of the four-year transfer students are married.

The Arts and Science Colleges and the University Centers were compared in terms of residence and it was found that for the two-year college transfer student, the pattern of residence at the University Centers and the Arts and Science Colleges are relatively similar, although more students live at the dorm at the Arts and Science Colleges. The patterns for four-year transfer students at these two types of colleges is also relatively similar, although in this case more University Center students live in the dorms.

One of the features of the two-year colleges is the provision of low cost higher education. In view of this, it is interesting to note that 20 percent of the students transferring from two-year colleges reported no earnings during the past vacation. On the positive side, 80 per cent did report earnings. In fact, 16 percent earned over $900. Although the numbers are not large, 28 percent of those students transferring to Specialized Colleges earned over $900. Twenty-four percent of the four-year college students transferring had no earnings during the past vacation.

In terms of expected earnings during the year, approximately one-half of the two-year transfer students did not expect to have earnings. Almost one-third expected to earn under $500. The 13 percent that expected to earn over $900 is of concern, since the amount of time expended in this manner may hinder the student in adjusting to the new environment. As in the case of past vacation earnings, a higher percentage of the four-year transfer students did not expect to have earnings during the school year, the figure being 56 percent. By types of colleges attended, the percent of four-year transfer students expecting no earnings was a consistent 57 percent, whereas for the two-year transfer students, it ranged from 46 at the University Centers to 56 at the Specialized Colleges. The lower figure for the University Centers might be correlated with the greater number living at home — although conversely, the assumption is that these people can more easily get jobs.

Before discussing the marital status, it might be well to note the sex and age distribution of the total 1,793 transfers. Two out of three are male. The ratio holds for two-year transfer students but changes to almost one to one for the four-year transfer students. In terms of age, as might be anticipated, 80 percent of the two-year transfer students are between 19 and 22. However, the men students tend to be older than the women; 70 percent of the women being 19-22, but only 50 percent of the men are in this age group.

The four-year transfers tend to be older — especially the women over 26 — probably housewives returning.

As reported in an earlier issue of Sightings and Soundings, we talked to individual students from five different community colleges who had transferred in the fall of 1964.

Several different reasons were indicated for choosing the two-year colleges. Academic problems caused one boy to do so; he had planned to attend a four-year college and was told by them that he would not be accepted there until he had proved his ability to do college-level work at a two-year school. A second was unsure of his ability to do college work, and thought he would rather try it first in a two-year school. Some of the others, however, had performed excellently in high school and had been, in fact, advised to go to colleges with a more difficult and stiffer academic reputation than the community college they chose to go to. These students were influenced by financial and social needs. If they could live at home, or live with relatives, it would be cheaper. Some might have felt that they were not ready to go away from home, but wanted to remain in the local community with their family.

They also sought the "smaller" social atmosphere at the two-year school, and felt that this would be a good bridge from perhaps a small high school to going into the university level.

When they entered the two-year colleges, nearly all of these students had expected to transfer to a four-year school. In a number of cases they already knew which school they wanted to transfer to, and worked out their programs to meet the requirements of that school. This apparently was perfectly possible. Students commented that the programs could easily be coordinated to meet both degree requirements and entrance requirements at the four-year school, and that they lost few or no credits in transferring. In some cases the students received counseling help in devising the program to meet the needs of the four-year school; in other cases they worked this out on their own.

Some students seemed to think that although they have been fairly adequately prepared for senior college work, that it had not been as rigorous a theoretical course as they would have received in the four-year college. One student described courses at the two-year college he attended as being more factual and less analytical, and as requiring much less in the way of background and outside knowledge on the part of the students. Students at another two-year college were more favorably impressed with the level of academic preparation that they had received. They also noted, however, that their preparation was less theoretical. However, they felt the enthusiasm and the smaller classes at the two-year college tended to make up for this. At least one of the transfers was surprised to find that the work at the four-year college was considerably easier than he had been led to expect.

One or two of the students mentioned a certain amount of resentment on the part of native students because they had received credit for courses at the two-year school, that while similar in scope were "not as difficult as the equivalent course." Two or three of the students who were interviewed were dean's list scholars at the two-year college; in most cases, although their average dropped slightly, they continued to be dean's list scholars at the four-year institution.

In general, these students were not very active in extra-curricular activities at their two-year schools. They were commuters, they were working part-time or married, and had other interests beyond the academic circles. All of them felt that the opportunities for extra-curricular activities at the two-year colleges were ample. Several of the students commented that the two-year college student body was friendlier and closer to its members than was the four-year school.

Opportunities to know the faculty were considered to be usually with professors in the major field at the four-year institution. The administration at both two- and four-year schools was greater at the two-year school, although there were exceptions—generally rated as rather aloof.

All of the students felt that the two-year college had been a good place for them to go, that they would attend it again in the same circumstances, and that it was much better than a straight plunge into the four-year large college.

On the whole the students were pleased with the academic programs at the four-year institution. They found them rigorous and more theoretical than those at the two-year schools, and found the professors more subject-oriented and less interested in the teaching role as such.

The students from one two-year school thought they had been quite well prepared to take the junior-level courses at the four-year school; from some of the other schools they had more trouble making the jump from the two-year college.

The student body at the four-year institution was described by several as being very conscious of grade-points and very competitive about how they were doing in classes. They seemed to feel that they had to be on top of their classes in order to get anywhere after they got out. This was an alien attitude to some of the transfers. There were others, however, and particularly the best students among the transfers, who said that they had not found more grade-consciousness or more competition except as this tended to become more so for the juniors than for the freshmen within the same school.

Most of the students were quite satisfied with the four-year school they had transferred to and thought that they would do it again.

There were student problems in transferring, of course. Some of them made the transition with a minimum of effort, finding that they enjoyed dormitory living, were challenged by their courses, made friends with their new student companions, and were generally very happy and well-adjusted. Others ran into difficulties in one or more of these areas. Not too many of them lost credits in transferring, certainly not those who had designed their programs with transfer in mind. Academically, they felt that they were at a slight disadvantage when they transferred because they were not as aware of the faculty and had more problems in selecting courses than they would have had they been on campus from their freshman year. They didn't know the professors and their strong or weak points, and had to adjust to a whole new group of courses. In a few cases, they found themselves very much lacking in background for their courses and having to do a good deal of extra work to bring themselves to the level of the courses they were taking.

The amount of counseling they got on an academic level varied. It seemed to be available both at the two-year and the four-year school, but only if the student looked for it; and some of these students were not even aware that such things could be hunted out. Some of them had no help at all, while others at the same school, had gotten ample guidance from faculty and administrative counselors. They felt that they could only go to the major advisors of their departments, in the four-year school, and some of them didn't think that even they would be very much interested in helping them with problems.

On an informal social level, most of them said they had made friends at the new school, and particularly those who were in the dorms, that they had made more and closer friends than they had had at the two-year institution, because of the commuting situation. There was little or no indication that any of the faculty resented having the transfer students. They did not, perhaps, go out of their way to orient them but were treating them on the whole as if they were just a part of the general student body.

Of interest in the talks with several of these students, is that a number of them were very much aware of the whole philosophy behind the two-year colleges; they evaluated the two-year colleges in terms of their meeting the needs of the diversified group of students, including those who were academically marginal for college work, those with financial problems, and those with other than academic interests. On the whole, they thought the two-year school had done rather well in coping with this sort of a "mixed-up student body."

Conclusion

The study, as noted earlier, will be concluded in June of 1967. However, reports of data collected in the first two years of the study are now being prepared. Additional reports will be developed on a stage basis. The tentative date for the publication of the final report is the fall of 1967.

Table 1

Allport, Vernon, Lindzey Study of Values Normative Group (Female) Compared to a Group of Female Two-Year College Students*

Scale	Two-year college group (N=582)		Normative group (N=1289)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Theoretical	38.28	6.00	35.75	7.19
Economic	39.30	5.95	37.87	7.30
Aesthetic	37.17	7.31	42.67	8.34
Social	41.51	6.33	42.03	7.02
Political	39.29	5.56	37.84	6.23
Religious	44.42	7.46	43.81	9.40

*All differences significant ($P > .01$)

Table 2

Allport, Vernon, Lindzey Study of Values Normative Group (Male) Compared to a Group of Male Two-Year College Students

Scale	Two-year college group (N=1078)		Normative group (N=2489)	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Theoretical	44.01	6.17	43.75	7.34
Economic*	44.80	6.77	42.78	7.92
Aesthetic*	32.45	7.05	35.09	8.49
Social*	36.21	6.14	37.09	7.03
Political	42.96	5.84	42.94	6.64
Religious*	39.50	7.77	38.20	9.32

*Differences significant ($P > .01$)

Table 3

Means, Standard Deviations, and t Values for Junior College Group and Edwards Normative College Group

Scale	Junior College Group (N=1372)		Edwards College Group (N=1509)		Difference	t Value
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		
Achievement	13.20	4.16	14.38	4.36	—	7.42**
Deference	12.26	3.63	11.80	3.71	+	3.41**
Order	11.43	4.33	10.24	4.34	+	7.93**
Exhibition	14.48	3.61	14.34	3.59		1.04
Autonomy	12.34	4.29	13.31	4.53	—	5.91**
Affiliation	14.69	4.18	16.19	4.36	—	9.43**
Intraception	15.64	4.74	16.72	5.01	—	5.93**
Succorance	11.59	4.50	11.63	4.65		.02
Dominance	13.00	4.56	15.83	5.02	—	11.41**
Abasement	17.25	4.56	13.66	5.14	+	19.51**
Nurturance	14.99	4.75	15.22	4.76		1.30
Change	16.28	4.41	16.35	4.88		.40
Endurance	14.80	5.25	12.65	5.25	+	10.80**
Heterosexuality	14.80	6.57	16.01	5.68	—	5.26**
Aggression	13.28	4.48	11.70	4.73	+	9.24**

**Significant at or beyond the .01 level of confidence.

—Junior college group mean less than Edwards group.

+Junior college group mean greater than Edwards group.

Table 4
Entering Classification of Transfers From Two-Year Colleges

	University Centers		Arts and Sciences Colleges		Specialized		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Freshman	10	4.1	41	6.9	19	20.0	70	7.5
Sophomore	43	17.8	234	39.1	42	44.2	319	34.1
Junior	184	76.0	279	46.7	31	32.6	494	52.8
Senior	1	—	4	—	2	2.0	7	—
Unclassifield	4	1.7	40	6.7	1	1.0	45	4.8
Total	242	100.0	598	100.0	95	100.0	935	100.0

Table 5
Curriculums To Which Two-Year Students Transfer

	University Centers		Arts and Sciences Colleges		Specialized Colleges		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Science and Mathematics	55	22.7	81	13.5	21	22.1	157	16.8
Liberal Arts and Social Science	69	28.5	163	27.3	8	8.4	240	25.7
Education	—	—	332	55.5	2	2.1	334	35.7
Business	115	47.5	—	—	6	6.3	121	12.9
Other	3	1.2	22	3.7	58	61.1	83	8.9
Total	242	100.0	598	100.0	95	100.0	935	100.0

Table 6

PLACE OF RESIDENCE
TWO-YEAR TRANSFER STUDENTS

Receiving Institutions	At Home		Private		Dormitory		Other College Housing		Other		Total	
	No.	Per-cent	No.	Per-cent	No.	Per-cent	No.	Per-cent	No.	Per-cent	No.	Per-cent
University Centers	73	30.1	40	16.5	96	39.6	21	8.6	12	4.9	242	100.0
Arts and Sciences Colleges	167	27.9	47	7.8	297	49.6	73	12.2	14	2.3	598	100.0
Specialized Colleges	12	12.6	17	17.8	26	27.3	11	11.5	29	30.5	95	100.0
Total	252	26.9	104	11.1	419	44.8	105	11.2	55	5.8	935	100.0

Table 7

Past Vacation Earnings of Students Transferring From Two-Year Institutions

Receiving Institution	No Earnings		$100 or Less		$101 to $300		$301 to $500		$501 to $700		$701 to $900		Over $900		Unknown		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent

University Centers	39	16.1	9	3.7	51	21.1	40	16.5	43	17.8	22	9.1	36	14.9	2	.8	242	100.
Arts and Science Colleges	126	21.1	39	6.5	92	15.4	117	19.6	67	11.2	49	8.2	91	15.2	17	2.8	598	100.
Specialized Colleges	17	17.9	4	4.2	7	7.4	16	16.8	18	18.9	4	4.2	28	29.5	1	1.1	95	100.
Total	182	19.5	52	5.6	150	16.0	173	18.5	128	13.7	75	8.0	155	16.6	20	2.1	935	100.

Table 8

Earnings Expected During the School Year: Transfers from 2-Yr. Institutions

Receiving Institutions	No Earnings		$500 or less		Over $500		Unknown		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
University Centers	111	45.9	93	38.4	30	12.4	8	3.3	242	100.0
Arts and Sciences Colleges	314	52.5	177	29.6	80	13.4	27	4.5	598	100.0
Specialized Colleges	53	55.8	22	23.2	16	16.8	4	4.2	95	100.0
Total	478	51.1	292	31.2	126	13.5	39	4.2	935	100.0

13

Problems Influencing Articulation Between Two and Four-Year Colleges

by

PAULINE F. HUNTER

Problems Influencing Articulation Between Two and Four-Year Colleges

PAULINE F. HUNTER, Associate Professor
State University of New York at Buffalo

There have been many studies of articulation between two-year and four-year colleges. The most recent being the Knoell, Medsker study which was published in 1965. Most of these studies, in fact one might say all of them, have been concerned with the amount of freedom with which a student could transfer credits taken in a two-year college to a four year college. Articulation has broader implications for the two-year college than the amount of degree credit transferable. An understanding of the philosophy, purpose and function of the two-year college is necessary before it is possible to allow students to move with ease from two to four year colleges.

The problem of articulation is not new to higher education but it has become an important problem, in recent years, because of the impetus of the junior college movement. Articulation between high school and the four-year college had evolved into a workable arrangement for most high schools and colleges in the Nation. The growth of the junior colleges brings many new problems to the two and four-year college educators.

For the purpose of this paper I would like to focus on the reasons why articulation between two and four-year colleges is difficult and may continue to be unless we, those of us in higher education, become aware of the problems confronting higher education in American society.

The amount of ease with which students transfer from two-year to four-year colleges is dependent upon an understanding of the junior college, its aims and purposes. The two-year college has been accepted as a part of the American educational system, but there is some doubt as to where it fits in relation to the other segments of education. The two-year college student is penalized in his efforts to transfer to many four-year colleges because the senior institution will not accept the work he has done in the two-year institution. Why should the student be penalized for the lack of understanding that exists among educators and others as to the kind of programs and quality of education that is carried on in the two-year colleges?

The public two-year college has been a part of the American institution of education since 1901, but the impetus the junior college movement has received in the past fifteen years has multiplied the problems that these institutions face. The ease with which students move from one college to another is dependent upon: (1) The identification of the two-year college as part of higher education, (2) an undersanding of the purposes of the two-year college, and (3) an understanding of the importance of the two-year college in the American institution of education.

The identity of the two-year college as higher education was a concern of Paul Orvis the retired Dean of two-year colleges in New York State. Orvis,[1] in a paper given before the New York Two-Year College Trustees and Council Members in 1964, stated that John Lombardi of California believed that his state was still seeking a philosophy for its junior colleges. According to Lombardi "it is not yet certain whether the junior college is a part of secondary or higher education."

The men who are the foremost thinkers in the junior college movement write of the objectives of the institution but do not propose a fundamental base from which to carry on these objectives. There is a great dialogue among many educators as to whether the junior college should be a part of secondary education or a part of higher education. This dialogue persists and causes failure, on the part of two-year college faculty and staff, to distinguish between secondary school principles of education and the principles embodied in higher education.

Between the inception of the junior college idea and its maturity as an entity in the institution of American education, its national identity has been in jeopardy. The Division of Higher Education in the U. S. Office of Education has not included two-year college education as part of its functions. The branches of this division have been carrying out their work in college and university administration, higher education programs and financial aid for higher education without concern for the role of the two-year college.

With the passage of the Higher Education Facilities Act of 1963, the junior college became part of American higher education by federal law. This act, the Morse-Green bill, defined "institutions of higher education" as institutions which meet the following criteria:

---

[1] Quoted by Paul B. Orvis in an address delivered at the Eleventh Annual Conference of Two-Year College Trustees and Council Members. (Lake Placid, New York, October 3, 1964).

> "(1) It admits as regular students only individuals having a certificate of graduation from a high school or the recognized equivalent of such a certificate.
>
> "(2) It provides an educational program for which it awards a bachelor's degree, or provides not less than a 2-year educational program which is acceptable for full credit toward such a degree, or provides a so-called technical-institute program."[2]

Although the passage of a law recognizing the junior college as part of higher education does not solve the problem of its identity, it is a start in the argument of whether it is post high school or higher education.

The impetus for the junior college movement came from leaders in higher education, but the financial and administrative structures developed from secondary education. Most of the faculty members and administrative personnel have come to the junior college via the secondary school route. Medsker[3] stated recently that: "Traditionally in public junior colleges a higher percentage of teachers had been recruited from secondary schools." In most states, the junior college has been part of the secondary school system. Medsker believes that the trend now is for them to be maintained by separate districts with their own governing boards.

If junior college education is to continue to play an increasingly larger role in higher education, the functions of the institutions must be understood by educators and others. Junior colleges serve a diverse student clientele—the transfer, the terminal, the undecided and the adult who wants to improve himself intellectually.

The designated function exclusive to the junior college is that of providing vocational-technical education, a function in which state colleges, private colleges and universities do not engage.

The junior colleges are charged with providing instruction in standard collegiate courses for students who wish to transfer to upper division work. In addition, the provision of general or liberal arts courses for the different goals of students makes the institution one which serves the particular needs of its students. Tailoring courses to individual needs provides opportunity for innovation and experimentation with the curriculum.

---

2. Office of Education, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, *Higher Education* (Washington: U.S. Printing Office, January, 1964), Vol. II, No. 5, p. 14.
3. Leland L. Medsker, "Changes in Junior Colleges and Technical Institutes," *Emerging Patterns in American Higher Education*, Logan Wilson (ed.) (Washington: American Council on Education, 1965), p. 82.

The nature and variety of the programs that must be offered by the junior colleges, if they are to meet the objectives they claim to meet, should accommodate students with greater divergence in ability than those in other segments of higher education. In order to operate a complete program in higher education, junior colleges should go beyond the practices of other segments of higher education and create some new practices that are unique to the purposes of the junior college.

The two-year college has many functions which depict the general purposes of the institution. One function is:

> "The junior college must take students who think of themselves as transfer students and transform many of them into terminal students in ways that will be psychologically acceptable to them."[4]

Thus, the functions of the two-year college are not those of other segments of American education.

Another function of the two-year college is its commitment to teaching. This commitment is strong and it remains unfettered of many of the traditions and customs of the four-year institutions. These institutions rarely try to build a communicable portrait of themselves to anyone except their immediate constituency.

Teaching and research are compatible functions but often one function takes precedence over the other. The two-year college faculty member has no commitment to research which involves publication of articles or books. The faculty member has a commitment to research only as it enhances his scholarship for teaching. Consequently, these faculties contain some of the best teachers in higher education, and the two-year colleges are doing much of the superior teaching that is being done in America.

Orvis writing of the lack of understanding of the functions of the two-year college said:

> "Too often the parent and the public believe that there is a descending quality in education from the university to the four-year college and from the four-year college to the two . . . As a matter of fact some of our poorest teaching is to be found in our graduate schools and some of our best in the elementary schools."[5]

---

[4] Philip Selznick, "A Sociologist Views Junior College Administration," (Symposium on Need for Administrative Leadership in Junior Colleges) *Journal of Secondary Education,* (January, 1961).

[5] Paul B. Orvis, "The 1964 Challenge," Address delivered at the Eleventh Annual Conference of Two-Year College Trustees and Council Members. (Lake Placid, New York, October 3, 1964).

The two-year college administrator and faculty should seize every opportunity to make the general public aware of what a two-year college education provides for the students it serves. The general public does not understand the two-year college and parents do not accept easily the idea that their youngsters should attend a two-year institution or that the two-year college is an inexpensive way for students to acquire the first two years of their college education.

The State of California in its Master Plan for Higher Education has carefully and methodically carried on a crusade in higher education, and particularly on the role of the junior college in higher education. California citizens have accepted the planning of state officials and outstanding educational leaders. Many California citizens believe that the two-year college is better than the four-year institution because the two-year college has a closer association with the high schools from which students graduate.

Members of the academic profession are rarely well informed about junior college education.

Bonner, *et. al.* have written:

> "There is not one educator among four who has a clear understanding of the unique partnership that has evolved, (and is still evolving) between the junior college and other segments of education."[6]

If professors think about the two-year college at all they usually associate the institution with vocational education or with an inferior kind of education.

College and university faculty members and administrators need to recognize the importance of the two-year college in American higher education. Faculty members should concern themselves with the identification of able students who will become good teachers and apprise these students of the opportunities available in two-year college teaching. College and university faculty members should recognize that the two-year colleges in many states will be teaching the majority of the lower division students in the years to come, and that the preparation of these students for upper division work is of vital importance to colleges and universities.

Teachers who will be responsible for the first two years of a college education for the majority of American youth must have an education that prepares them to discharge this responsibility. If liberal arts faculty members do not become interested in the identification of able young men and women, who are not research scholars, and advise them of the opportunities available for scholarship in teaching in the two-year colleges they are abdicating their responsibilities as they have done since the beginning of the nineteenth century.

---

[6] Thomas N. Bonner, Duane W. Hill, and George F. Wilber, *The Contemporary World* (Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall Inc., 1960), p. 380.

Hancher[7], writing of the needs of twentieth century higher education, was critical of the professors in the 1870's who felt it beneath their dignity to prepare teachers for elementary and secondary schools and as a result the normal schools and teachers undertook the task. Hancher believes that the professional interests of college professors do not lie in the preparation of teachers. Yet the importance of the preparation of adequately educated two-year college teachers cannot be denied and it should be a responsibility of the graduate schools.

Conclusion

The responsibility for clearly stating the philosophy of the two-year college lies with the teachers and administrators in the two-year colleges. A clear statement of purposes and functions is important because it clarifies the role of the two-year college for educators and laymen.

The need for community college teachers in the years to come makes it imperative that college professors and administrators understand the purposes of the community college and that they take the initiative in organizing programs for the education of community college teachers, and for the continuing education of community college teachers.

Articulation may be defined as the result of a joint or juncture between two or more immovable parts. The movement allowed is dependent upon the willingness of the educational world to come to grips with the problems it faces. The responsibility lies with all teachers and educators in the American institution of education.

---

[7] Virgil Hancher, "The Challenges We Face," *Vision and Purpose in Higher Education*, Howes (ed.) (Washington: American Council on Education, 1962), p. 83.

14

Initiating Progams in Teaching, Administration and Research in Community Colleges

by

G. LESTER ANDERSON

Initiating Programs in Teaching, Administration and Research in Community Colleges

Professor G. Lester Anderson
State University of New York at Buffalo

The junior colleges are an imposing portion of the post-high school segments of American education. There are more than 700 of these institutions. They enrolled one out of every four students entering college in 1963. Two-thirds of the freshmen in Florida were in that year in a junior college. It is predicted that by 1970 four of five beginning college students in California will be in junior colleges.

Almost every statement about junior colleges includes the observation that the present status of the colleges, their place in the total structure of higher education, their numbers, their enrollments, their programs are but indications of greater things to come. The total junior college-community college-technical institute situation is flexible, fluid, expanding. The system will need in the future large numbers of faculty. It will need administrators. It will need continuing clarification of its purposes and will accordingly be developing new programs. It should be evaluated continuously. It will find new modes of relationship to its community — the community which will support it and to the special communities which use its graduates. It will also find new modes of relationship to the secondary schools, to the four-year colleges, and to the universities.

The purpose of this paper is to explore what the university (which by definition offers graduate work and does research and both presumably in the field of education) might or should do by way of programs for the junior college. We are also especially interested in what might be done by way of training or educating administrators for these colleges.

We can assume that there is a certain historical imperative that would make it futile in several states and regions to protest the idea that the universities should be involved in junior college affairs. The only questions which really have much meaning are of the following character: How many universities should be involved? To what degree, in both breadth and depth? How systematic or formal should the program or programs be as contrasted with informal relationships? What divisions or segments of the university might be involved?

Why shouldn't we start this statement with history, since we can hardly escape it? Almost any book which addresses itself to the junior or community college points out that from the very beginnings of this segment of education at the turn of the century, university persons were exercising leadership. It was the first president of the Univerity of Chicago who is presumed to have given the junior college its name. The presidents of Stanford and the University of California during the first score of years of this century were significant figures in that state achieving first status in the development of these colleges.

In other states, the universities often played a supporting or benevolent role. I remember during my decade at Minnesota from the late 1930's through the late 1940's, the University was almost paternal in its relations to the junior colleges. Indeed, an assistant dean of the Arts College had a special relationship to these colleges that was even more "maternal" than paternal as I recall it. These relationships were in marked contrast to those between the university and the state colleges which at best were basically indifferent, which more often were competitive, and which occasionally were hostile.

History, then, will not be denied. The universities have concerned themselves with the junior colleges and will continue to do so. As junior colleges educate more and more freshmen and sophomores who will transfer into the four-year colleges and universities, the university will continue to be compelled to broaden and make more formal its relationship not only to individual junior colleges but to the system of junior colleges.

Let us assume, then, that a university is to have a formal relationship to the junior college matter. What might be the scope of this relationship and who might be involved? It seems axiomatic that the university would be involved in (1) the education of training of faculty and administrators, (2) in conducting a program of service to these colleges, and (3) in a research program.

The education of faculty and administrators can be general or specific. This area of consideration simply raises once again all the concerns for the education of teachers at both the lower school levels and for the colleges and universities. I do not choose here to debate the issues. There are many voices, however, which hold that the universities in some manner must give systematic attention to educating persons to teach in the junior colleges. I do not think it likely that there will be any significant movement to do more than is now done to certify these teachers. The trend is increasingly to identify the junior college with the four-year institutions rather than the schools and this would seem to negate any expanding certification or licensing of these teachers. Consequently the universities will not be educating teachers with certification in mind as they do publc school teachers.

The system for recruiting and selecting faculty will however be self policing. As it continues its struggle for status, as it interrelates increasingly with senior colleges and transfers its product to them, as accreditation continues to develop, personnel needs of the junior colleges and standards for their education will be codified. The universities will be asked, more and more, systematically to acknowledge the needs and standards and to plan to meet them.

I predict that one will more and more see collaborative efforts between graduate schools and schools of education to plan and to program in some degree the education of junior college faculty. Later I will discuss in somewhat more detail the form a particular segment of this university task might take.

I have already alluded to a type of service program when I suggested that there has been a considerable paternalism in some states on the part of universities toward junior colleges. In these and other states, state departments of education also have been advisory as well as regulatory in their relationships to the junior colleges. But again I predict that there will be continuous pressure on the university to assist communities as they establish colleges, to assist colleges in studying their programs and operation, to assist legal bodies as they wrestle with problems of organization, governance, and finance of these colleges.

The universities can give supporting service to the junior colleges in several ways. It can be assumed that some university professors will "consult" with the colleges on the basis of a personal relation. Universities can plan that the university school of education, through its usual channels of service or through specially organized centers or bureaus or institutes, will make available specialists on junior college affairs. It can (that is, the university can) build into its own administrative structure laison agents who become service agents to the community college. There can, for example, be a staff person in the admissions-registrar office who not only "operates" a transfer program but also "leads" in the development of policy regarding transfer from the junior college to the university. A more responsible and more broadly defined position of "relationship to the junior colleges" based on technical competency in junior college affairs may well develop in large numbers of universities, the public ones at least. The person who fills this position will be a staff service person with a considerable organization of his own and informal assistance from other university bureaus.

There is no limit immediately seen to the research which can be developed for and about the junior college. The substantial program which Medsker has conducted through the Center for the Study of Higher Education at Berkeley is both sound and highly useful, but it is but a token of the research which could profitably be pursued. I will not catalog the areas or problems here which might be pursued. Later I will suggest a few problems in a limited aspect of the junior college's function—namely, occupational education, to show how a university might profitably engage in research in the junior college sphere.

But let me not labor further the university's formal role regarding education, research, and service for the junior college. Let me discuss the university's involvement in a different way. I should like to talk of its involvement in terms of leadership and innovation, of evaluation and adaptation, and of support and interpretation.

We said earlier that the junior college system of the country will grow in numbers of colleges. Enrollments will increase. Programs will be modified. New organizational arrangements will be developed. Whence will come the leadership for the changes which will come about? What will be the sources of innovation and adaptation? Who will test the validity of these changes? Who will interpret them?

The organization itself will provide much of its leadership. The administrators by definition have, in part, this role of leadership. The colleges themselves will create, innovate, and adapt or they will not continue to exist. But it is doubtful that a strictly self-contained system would be particularly effective or socially wise. A profound source of stimulation for improvement for almost all social institutions emanates from the university campus. Universities freely accept this role for most of our social institutions and should accept it for this segment of education. In turn, the colleges should invite the participation of the universities in their continuing development.

I doubt that we need to labor the point. But this role of the university in other comparable settings might be mentioned. Schools of medicine not only educate physicians, they also are among the most powerful and innovative forces in our system for maintaining the health of our people. They conduct research, but they also test and evaluate processes and procedures in the field of health, and their faculties actively participate in the affairs of the profession. So it is with law, engineering, business, indeed all the professions and the social institutions of which they are a part. The schools of America were built by the Deweys and Thorndikes, the Judds and Termans, and a host of other university men as well as by the school men and women of America—probably more so. This role of universities is axiomatic.

It might be said that university faculties have paid least attention to the institution in which they serve and to the processes through which they operate—at least in their role as scholars. But the Harvard faculty did produce *General Education for a Free Society,* and one can sense a change in universities. More universities are recognizing higher education as a field of study. Formal programs are being established and scholars in a variety of disciplines are doing research in higher education.

Universities owe to the junior colleges an obligation to serve them in the ways universities can serve. Universities should meet this obligation. The colleges should welcome the universities as participators in their continuing development.

The voice of the university professor speaking about junior colleges to junior college faculties, to communities about their colleges, to makers of public policy and law, to budget makers and tax leviers can be the voice of the objective proponent. The university man can be bold and even brash in suggesting innovation or change where the college leader might feel he must be temperate in his proposals.

The university researcher is often in a favored position to evaluate what happens in the junior college education. This is so because the university researcher is equipped technically, he has an organization to serve him, and he has the time to give in programs of evaluation. Out of such research and evaluation he can propose adaptions of the college as it fulfills it role. The recent reports of Knoell and Medsker on the success of junior college transfers is evaluation research of a very high order (8. 9). Their findings can be highly significant to individual institutions but even more significant as state and national policy in the organization and support of higher education is formulated.

The university based professor can support and interpret the junior college to its constituencies where the same words from a college based person would seem self-serving and prejudiced.

So far we have presented a general statement of responsibilities that universities might legitimately assume regarding junior colleges as an institution. We have stated that the classic roles of the university, — teaching, research, and service, might well be translated into activities relevant to the junior college organization and operation. We have suggested, in somewhat different terms, that the university can do some things better for the junior colleges than they can do for themselves. We have suggested that certain elements of leadership might well be carried by university based persons and that certain aspects of advocacy and interpretation may also best be carried by such persons.

Because of the particular constituency of this conference, it is fitting to discuss the education of junior college personnel with special attention to administrators. We have already suggested that the education of junior college faculty is not apt to become formalized in the same fashion as the education of elementary and high school teachers. We do believe, however, that there will be a place in a number of universities for instruction, may I say courses, of "professional education" character, which will find some acceptance among some persons who have some aspirations to be junior college teachers. This sentence as I review it conveys exactly what I want it to convey! These same courses are not likely to have wide acceptance among the academic departments, among large numbers of aspiring Ph.D.'s; nor will they be viewed as significant in the credentials of potential junior college teachers by large numbers of employing officers. I am not attempting here to make an evaluation of such work; I am making a judgment about the widespread acceptance of such courses in the future.

I do believe work of the character of professional courses directed toward the junior college and junior college teaching *can be offered* and will be useful. It will be taken when graduate students or teachers in service have a "felt need" (if I dare use that term) as a result of their experiences in teaching or when their departmental chairmen or deans have a "felt need" for them. This will occur frequently enough so that there should be a steady stream of students to such courses if they are organized in larger universities and in states where there are significant numbers of junior colleges and junior college teachers.

I believe that in an occasional university or in an occasional state where there may be a happy combination of leaders in the field and in the universities that more systematic programs may prosper. But I think these will not be common.

I have largely been talking about the situation for education courses and have been thinking about the bread and butter faculty, the teachers of English, social sciences, sciences, and so on.

Under conditions of concern for teachers with uncommon skills, and these will largely be in the technical-terminal areas of instruction, there may be need for more than casual attention to the situation. In another section of this statement we will say a few things about the education of teachers for occupational subjects.

Perhaps the best prospect for universities systematically to educate junior college personnel is to plan to educate administrators. I suspect that for many years the academic administrators for higher education as a whole will come from faculty ranks and only occasionally will they have had, as they come to their task, other than an experimental or temperamental base for their work. However, universities will more and more directly educate persons to serve in the bureaucracies of higher education—libraries, student personnel service agencies, offices of institutional research, offices of admissions and records, and so on. With the projected growth of junior colleges, they will avidly seek persons trained in those areas and universities are not likely to fail to prepare people specifically for these classes of positions.

The general academic administrator for the junior college is more apt than administrators for four-year colleges and universities to have come the graduate education route. This is partially true because of the historical junior college identification in terms of sponsorship, organization, and support with public elementary and secondary education as much as with higher education. And the public school administrator today almost universally has had formal graduate study directly related to his task or role.

Systematic preparation of the junior college administrator has already been undertaken on some campuses with Kellogg Foundation support. The experiences these universities have had can only prove useful as other universities move into the business. But several matters on which decisions must be made in training general academic junior college administrators can be identified. For example:

1) Can the present progressive programs for educating public school administrators be adapted with only modest changes to the education of junior college administrators or will substantially new and different programs emerge?

2) Will the locus for such education be in departments or divisions of school administration or in departments or centers of higher education?

3) Will programs for training junior college administrators be highly programmed (that is, high in required content and activity) or will they largely be tailor-made for a given individual?

The present state of the art leads me to suggest that for some time to come the education of junior college administrators is likely to be directed by those professors who profess interests in higher education rather than administration, and that the traditional graduate education pattern of designing a program for a man rather than for a function will prevail. But I recognize I could be seriously in error in this projection. Perhaps this conference will sufficiently stimulate administrator-educators in a dozen or so universities to design systematic programs for the education of junior college administrators so that they will opt the field and thus determine the course of development for the next twenty years at least!

At this time I think it would be useful for some person or institution to make a relatively straightforward analysis of who the junior college administrators are. Trends as to how the position is tending might be identified. For example, are deans and presidents appointed in the last eight or ten years more or less likely to be drawn from higher education ranks compared to public school ranks than persons appointed earlier? How much formal training in administration have they had? On the basis of such relatively uncomplicated studies we could plan more wisely than we are apt to.

One thing is certain if any kind of program for the education of administrators is to emerge, it is, first, that the progressive trends fostered by the University Council on Educational Administration and others in recent years in educating administrators should be respected and, second, that the kind of substantive material incorporated into this conference must provide the base of the administrators' learning.

The junior college administrator at the level of dean or president cannot simply be a technician, a bureaucrat, or a manager. He must have a sense of educational values, a perception of the meaning of higher education, a commitment to the ends of education as well as knowledge of the means, and a wisdom as to how social institutions including education achieve support. In total, the successful junior college administrator for the next several years should in my opinion be as much philosopher as manager—perhaps even more philosopher than manager!

The professors attending this conference will I belive support this observation. Indeed, I suspect they understand better what I have just said than I myself understand it.

A second large class of junior college personnel that universities surely will be educating are student personnel staff and particularly counselors. This group of college and university servants has emerged as a distinct group. The faculty adviser still has a role but the advising and counseling specialist is now with us. And he should be. I would not insist that the counselor per se be trained as a college counselor, indeed I think counselors should probably be a generic class. But programs of varied emphases are and will continue to be devised. As we have vocational rehabilitation counselors, we will find some students emphasizing college counseling. These persons may well have one, two or three courses dealing with higher education and its processes, per se.

Perhaps it is appropriate here for me to reveal by biases concerning higher education as a field of study and perhaps such a statement might be of some use as a point of departure for any group which is considering organizing a program in higher education.

I do not believe there is as yet a place for any large number of courses in higher education. Perhaps from three to five or six courses at the most would be justifiable as of now. I see the field of higher education as an area of concentration primarily at the dissertation level. Some students in education (or perhaps in other disciplines) will write a thesis on a higher education problem and move into an administrative position in a junior college, a state college, or in ancillary or service fields (e.g., student personnel) in colleges or universities. As remarked earlier, most administrators will probably for some time emerge from the professoriate.

As we have inferred, the only area which in the near future may establish a professional education component is junior college teaching. There will be a place for higher education content in workshops and as a post doctoral field for a few. Finally, some persons should be trained as scholars in the field. Their basic training, however, should probably be in such areas as psychology, measurement and statistics, history and philisophy, and so on. Their dissertations should use the tools of their discipline but be on a higher education topic. These persons will be in a position to accept a variety of positions, most frequently, I suspect, in colleges of education teaching higher education, in institutional research, or as staff positions in administrative bureaucracies.

As a field of scholarship, there is much to be done. I should like to see a variety of disciplinary tools used on a variety of broad areas of concern. There is much to be done in administration and finance, institutions as organizations, and the nature of students. It is interesting to see men like Machlup and Harris writing on economic matters, Reisman being all over the lot, and the emergence of such persons as Burton Clark from sociology to work in higher education. The approaches can be psychological, sociological, historical, philosophical, and so on. I think a group at a unishould be. I would not insist that the counselor per se be trained as a college counselor, indeed I think counselors should probably be a generic class. But programs of varied emphases are and will continue to be devised. As we have vocational rehabilitation counselors, we will find some students emphasizing college counseling. These persons may well have one, two or three courses dealing with higher education and its processes, per se.

Perhaps it is appropriate here for me to reveal by biases concerning higher education as a field of study and perhaps such a statement might be of some use as a point of departure for any group which is considering organizing a program in higher education.

I do not believe there is as yet a place for any large number of courses in higher education. Perhaps from three to five or six courses at the most would be justifiable as of now. I see the field of higher education as an area of concentration primarily at the dissertation level. Some students in education (or perhaps in other disciplines) will write a thesis on a higher education problem and move into an administrative position in a junior college, a state college, or in ancillary or service fields (e.g., student personnel) in colleges or universities. As remarked earlier, most administrators will probably for some time emerge from the professoriate.

As we have inferred, the only area which in the near future may establish a professional education component is junior college teaching. There will be a place for higher education content in workshops and as a post doctoral field for a few. Finally, some persons should be trained as scholars in the field. Their basic training, however, should probably be in such areas as psychology, measurement and statistics, history and philisophy, and so on. Their dissertations should use the tools of their discipline but be on a higher education topic. These persons will be in a position to accept a variety of positions, most frequently, I suspect, in colleges of education teaching higher education, in institutional research, or as staff positions in administrative bureaucracies.

As a field of scholarship, there is much to be done. I should like to see a variety of disciplinary tools used on a variety of broad areas of concern. There is much to be done in administration and finance, institutions as organizations, and the nature of students. It is interesting to see men like Machlup and Harris writing on economic matters, Reisman being all over the lot, and the emergence of such persons as Burton Clark from sociology to work in higher education. The approaches can be psychological, sociological, historical, philosophical, and so on. I think a group at a university could block out a general area and with a group of students begin to explore it somewhat systematically. Michigan State University has done this in "evaluation." McConnell has been doing it at California around "diversity." I do not insist on any program being neatly and tightly planned, but I should like to see fewer *ad hoc* or expedient or only timely studies made by staff and students. In essence, higher education at the present time is better left as a research field where the disciplines meet and training in it, as such, remains fluid. It is not ready to mount a "complete curriculum."

Let me now and once again shift the emphasis of this paper. I have said something about the classic roles of universities as teaching, research, and service institutions in relation to junior colleges. I have suggested that universities can be especially useful in suggesting change and adaptation. I have made a few judgments about the potential programs for educating junior college teachers and administrators. Let us be more concrete in this final section by reviewing specifically one segment of the junior college program—namely the occupational or vocational segment. We should like to be somewhat explicit as to how the university might help junior colleges perform their task here better.

Occupational education is viewed as a fundamental purpose of the junior college. One type—the technical institute—has this as its over-riding purpose. While every junior college does not have a program or programs in vocational education, no careful student of the junior college situation would deny to the colleges a vocational education objective. But having said this, one can say little more. One finds little agreement as to what might belong in the junior college vocational programs. There is misunderstanding of the nature of the programs even by the people who administer them and teach in them. Students tend to shun the courses. There seems to be little systematic attention, particularly of a research character, to vocational curricula and to the changing world of work as it might be reflected in changing programs.

Of the junior colleges' two broad purposes—transfer education and terminal education, most are agreed the transfer program is emphasized and operates better. Venn quotes Medsker to this effect:

> "It is obvious . . . that the two year college in America is focused more on the transfer than the terminal function. If, then, the institution is adjudged solely on the basis of its special services to students who do not transfer, it fails to measure up." (12 p. 89. Also 11, p. 112)

California as a state does as much to accomplish the vocational objective as any state. Lombardi, a California Junior College President, writing in the *Educational Record* recalls that the schools must periodically re-examine the role of vocational education and then states:

> "The California Junior Colleges have not been spared this ordeal. As the examination has progressed, educators have discovered that consensus on the aims and objectives of occupational education does not exist, a condition in sharp contrast to that on college transfer education." (10, p. 142)

The need for terminal occupational programs is nevertheless accepted and clear. Indeed, the need will grow. (See 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 7, 10, 11, and 12.) The substance of this conference has fundamental implications for the world of work and is pregnant with meaning as to how people must be educated for this world. The shift of vocational education from the secondary schools to the two-year colleges is underway and will accelerate.

The man-power authority Ginzberg (1, p. 34) has written:

> "Most young people have the intellectual capacity to complete an academic high-school curriculum, and perhaps to attend a junior college, should postpone vocational education until they complete high school. Until then, most young people should concentrate on acquiring control over the rudiments and simple academic subjects."

Despite the acceptance of purpose, we have already noted that the junior college is having a hard time with the occupational objective. Indeed, the prospects for the objective as one reads a number of recent reports on vocational education, are not bright. Can the universities help clarify the situation, define issues, provide understanding, initiate programs of research and training—all of which will be strictly relevant to junior college vocational education? I believe that they can, that they should, and that they are about the only group that can rapidly advance the junior college in this sphere of its activitiy. What form would such efforts in the university take?

Clark, for one and as a university based research activity, has superbly illuminated the difficulties of achieving vocational education in the junior college in his study, *The Open Door College.* (3) San Jose junior college, the case in Clark's study, could not apparently have been a more favorable situation for occupational education. It was established with this as a primary objective. It was given facilities favorable to vocational education. Its administrators were vocational education people. But because of a technicality in the legal structure that required general education offerings and because of the motivation of students, coupled with status concepts concerning occupation offerings, the college rather rapidly became a "typical" situation in which transfer education "defeated" occupational education.

Lombardi has stated what may be at the heart of the matter. He states: "It is not yet certain whether the junior college is part of secondary or of higher education. It is still seeking a philosophy" (10, p. 142). Here perhaps lies part of the problem. The junior college, in sociological terms, is not yet an institution. It is not in control of itself. It has the same problems, institutionally conceived, as the teachers colleges had from their founding until recent years and as they became basically multi-purpose colleges. Consequently, the junior college is marked by confused purposes and uncertain means to accomplish them. It can serve the university and some of its students by providing transfer education because this is an uncomplicated task, although it may be demanding. But providing vocational education requires much more. We would hold, and as Lombardi suggests, not until the two-year college has attained its own philosophy will the vocational programs begin to be successful.

The Clark study lays out the situation. Probably only a university, based man and one thoroughly in control of his methodology for institutional analysis could have produced the body of knowledge which Clark produced. And it is this knowledge which leads to systematic understanding and potential control of the organization. It is the kind of knowledge which is necessary if a philosophy is to be achieved.

But achieving a philosophy does not solve the problems of organization, of programs, and of faculty. These also are very real problems to the two-year colleges in terms of meeting the occupational objective.

The nature of junior college organization as it relates to vocational education and perhaps inhibits it, is interesting.

McClure has pointed out the realities that must be faced by the several states if they are "to meet the challenge of vocational and technical education at the junior college level." (1, p. 232) He cites such items as the need to educate a larger segment of the population, the need for a broadening educational purpose, urbanization, increasing numbers who want post-high school education, growth of adult education, and the need for counseling services on a broader scale.

He then states:

> "The possible range of specialization in vocational and technical education is so great that a state system of junior college education is imperative. It is difficult to see how anything less can cope with the problem.
>
> "The most compelling need today is an organization with statewide coverage which omits nothing of importance. A rational state system is a necessity." (1, p. 234)

McClure then adds:

> "The most imaginative structure for vocational and technical education of less than four-year-college level is a state system of comprehensive junior colleges. This system would consist of regional administrative units located strategically with reference to distribution of population and coordinated by a state agency for higher education." (1, pp. 234-235)

That the states vary tremendously in their response to the challenge is revealed when we discover that fifty per cent of all students enrolled in junior college occupational programs are enrolled in the colleges of two states (California and New York) and perhaps three quarters of all enrollees are in the colleges of only 5 states. (12, p. 89) This condition is partly a function of population but it is also a function of the failure of many states to meet the challenge and problem of either junior college education or of vocational education.

Now the question, "Who better can state the challenge than the universities of the several states?" It is of significance that the statement that the vocational objective can only be met by an organized state system of two-year colleges has been made by a university professor and appears in the yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. But as we have been saying, this is what professors are supposed to do and what yearbooks are for.

Norman Harris has chided the deans and presidents of junior colleges for not being able to implement the vocational education objective of the junior college as he thinks it should be implemented. (5) But the bases for programs and curriculum must be found in the analyses of the scholars of universities—the sociologists, psychologists, engineering scientists, economists, educators and others. Only as these people do their work can sound programs be made operational by the junior college faculty and administrators.

Among the conditions which seem to work against vocational education in the junior colleges are these:

1. Four-year college oriented instructors and administrative personnel.
2. The structure of the institution, modelled on the four-year college.
3. The expectation of students enrolled that they will continue their education beyond the junior college.
4. The hierarchal status of the junior college occupational training in relation to four-year and graduate occupational training; the presumption that the two-year training is nice but not necessary.
5. The cost of occupational education.
6. Failure systematically to educate teachers for these fields.
7. Limited vision of leaders in vocational education as to the changing world of work and its relation to the junior college system.

The students of the junior college and the university experts in vocational education can deal with these conditions in several ways. They can test the assumption underlying the conditions and the conditions themselves. They can lay the basis for change by providing a body of knowledge to tell us what adaptations to make for the change. They can advocate changed patterns of organization and program. They can examine their own university assumptions of status, hierarchy, and value and the way they affect the staff they send to the junior college.

Earlier we wrote in general terms about the education of junior college teachers in the universities. Perhaps something significant could be done in the education of teachers for occupations. Swanson and Cramer writing in the NSSE Yearbook on Vocational Education say ". . . that many aspects of the skills and knowledges necessary for the successful teaching of agriculture, business, distributive, and home economics occupations are available in institutions of higher learning, whereas there is virtually no such opportunity for the trade and technical teacher. The trade and technical teacher must complete his major in the world of work." (1, p. 170)

It would seem that as junior colleges expand in numbers and as the technologies and services that should be trained for by the students enrolled in them, the rational act would be for universities to educate teachers for these technologies and services. But here university leadership must be exercised or it won't happen. If leaders in vocational education in and out of universities continuously direct statements to the universities as to their responsibilities in meeting vocational teacher needs, perhaps something would result.

Such programs should be planned by persons representing these groups at least: (1) the subject matter departments in the technologies, certainly colleges of engineering, (2) the expert in vocational education, and (3) the expert in the junior college. Models, as Swanson and Cramer suggest, may be found in agriculture or home economics or in nursing.

Perhaps we can best summarize the status of vocational education in the junior college in these words from the Venn report:

> "Opportunities for post-secondary occupational education are best described as a sometime thing. The variety of institutions that offer programs, the wide range of approaches among the various states and the resulting disparity of opportunity open to students in various parts of the country, all serve to make definitions and generalizations virtually impossible." (12, p. 85)

Venn goes on to say:

> "Taken as a whole, American junior colleges do not give proper attention to the occupational education phase of their purpose." (12, p. 88)

Perhaps we can summarize the responsibility and the opportunity in these words: First, Lombardi ends his piece in the Educational Record this way:

> ". . . the junior college will perpetrate an injustice on its students and will retard the development of its occupational program unless it insists on the principle that occupational courses have a place in its curriculum and that they are the equal of its academic curriculum." (10, p. 147)

Venn makes this observation:

> "[post secondary occupational education] is an area of education upon which the new technology has placed the stamp of utmost importance, an area ripe for new thinking and vigorous leadership." (12, p. 85)

It seems to me that university based scholars in the fields of higher education, of vocational education, and educational administration should be doing much of this "new thinking" and perhaps providing part of the "vigorous leadership" which Venn asks for.

The group of scholars just named should be enlisting the attention of their colleagues in the several social sciences to assess the job trends of the future, estimate programs needed, describe the motives of the young to enroll in these programs, plan the organization of education in the states to meet the conditions both current and future, assess the costs, and propose the sources of revenue to meet them.

This is the kind of job which universities do best and for which we are supported. We as scholars do not, every hour, have to be operating a program. We can look down the road—five years, ten years, twenty years and thus today determine the future. In these terms, universities can and should initiate programs of education, of administration, and of research for junior colleges.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Barlow, Melvin L., editor. *Vocational Education.* The Sixty-fourth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. The Society, Chicago, Illinois, 1965. 301 p.
2. Blocker, Clyde E., Robert H. Plummer, and Richard C. Richardson, Jr. *The Two Year College: A Social Synthesis.* Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey, 1965. 298 p.
3. Clark, Burton R. *The Open Door College.* McGraw Hill, New York, 1960. 216 p.
4. *Education for a Changing World of Work.* Report of the Panel of Consultants on Vocational Education. U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, Office of Education. Washington, 1963. 296 p.
5. Harris, Norman C. "Major Issues in Junior College Technical Education." *The Educational Record.* 45: No. 2, (Spring, 1964) pp. 128-138.
6. Harris, Norman C. *Technical Education in the Junior College, New Programs for New Jobs.* American Association of Junior Colleges, Washington, 1964. 102 p.
7. Henninger, G. Ross. *The Technical Institute in America.* The McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1950. 276 p.
8. Knoell, Dorothy M. and Leland L. Medsker. *Articulation Between Two-Year and Four-Year Colleges.* University of California, Berkeley, 1964. 11 p.
9. Knoell, Dorothy M. and Leland L. Medsker. *Factors Affecting Performance of Transfer Students from Two-to-Four-Year College.* University of California, Berkeley, 1964. 193 p.
10. Lombardi, John. "Occupational Education in California Junior Colleges." *The Educational Record.* 45: No. 2, (Spring, 1964) pp. 142-147.
11. Medsker, Leland L. *The Junior College, Progress and Prospects.* The McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 1960. 367 p.
12. Venn, Grant. *Man, Education and Work.* Post-Secondary Vocational and Technical Education. American Council on Education, Washington, 1964. 184 p.

15

Panel Reactions To: "Initiating Programs in Teaching, Administration and Research in Community Colleges"

by

DONALD WILLOWER

MAX S. SMITH

THOMAS E. O'CONNELL

Panel Reactions to: "Initiating Programs in Teaching, Administration and Research in Community Colleges"

DONALD WILLOWER
MAX S. SMITH
THOMAS E. O'CONNELL

O'CONNELL: What a natural it is to have people who are not primarily researchers teaching lower division courses in community colleges. But I have been asked, "How do these faculty people keep up?" "How does your faculty keep up?" This is something that has bothered me. It seems to me that the universities can offer a variety of opportunities for our community college faculties to keep up. We ought to have summer sessions, short courses, noncredit courses, and programs where the graduate schools and the schools of education cooperate so that our faculty on a continuing basis can go to the university center to get refreshed and keep up with their fields, as Dr. Anderson suggests. I see this as one of our principal limitations as we build faculties for the future, but if we lick this problem of their keeping up, we'll continue to have the kind of teaching we all want.

I was reminded as I was sitting here of a question that the protagonist, Lewis Elliott, asks of himself in one of C. P. Snow's novels in the *Strangers and Brothers* series. What is the characteristic of many people in the British establishment which keeps them from cutting their way to the top? The people who are able, who are smart, who are ambitious, but who never quite make the first rank—what is it that precludes their making the first rank? Lewis Elliott decides that there is a unique and subtle combination of diffidence and pride that prevents otherwise predictably top level people from making the top. It occurs to me that there is a problem which we have in community colleges that involves this combination of diffidence and pride. We have to have Ralph Fields stand up and tell us about how right we are; and yet there is a diffidence about our relations with the four-year institutions.

We don't need to worry too much about this question of articulation and laison with the four-year institutions. It is a natural situation that is going to come. What could be better than having our students coming out of Berkshire Community College and going to the University of Massachusetts already having shown that they can do the jobs and can achieve higher averages than those who started at the University. The university administrators must be aware that this is an enormous benefit. What we are doing is so right we need not be diffident nor have a false pride about it.

It has been stated that programs for administrators are important because they must become inculcated with the virtues of the junior college movement. You don't have to have this professional background in order to be enthusiastic. Almost no one at Berkshire Community College has this professional background, and I would defy anyone anywhere to find a group of people more enthusiastic about what it is doing. The product is so good that we don't have to worry about sophisticated, intelligent people picking it up. It seems to me we worry more than we need to.

WILLOWER: When you look at this question of the community college and you try to react to it in a systematic way, you find that there are a number of difficulties. First of all, the philosophic questions connected with the junior college remain an issue. Nobody is quite sure whether it ought to be the last stage of a high school education or the first stage of a university education. Secondly, it seems to me that it is very hard to find propositions about the community college for which there is very much evidence. Now let me give you an example of what I mean. I think the excursion into history this morning was interesting, but it was more interesting for the questions that it raised than for the conclusions that one could come to as a result of it. For example, why did the universities cooperate with community college people while at the same time their relationships with the teachers' college people were either non-existent or somewhat hostile? Should we, on the basis of this, look at history and predict that the universities will foster the community college? I think if we make this prediction, we don't really know why we make it, only that we have looked at a few cases and it seems that this is the way that it has been.

In Pennsylvania, for example, there is some conflict between the community college system which has been proposed by the state and the university system as represented by the state university. This is an exception to the historical analysis. For example, if one looks at history, is it true or not that the influence of the universities on the junior colleges is what has led to the transfer emphasis in junior colleges? Is this a proposition that one could make with some degree of assurance? I find that there are whole areas here where we draw blanks. I think this is a very important kind of thing to recognize. I think that Professor Anderson clearly recognizes this in his call for more extensive research on the community college. In contrast to our last speaker, I would see this as a great need. You cannot really make intelligent administrative judgments, or any kind of judgments, unless you have something upon which to base them. Therefore, I would look to research and hope that there would be a great deal of it of a programatic type and at various university centers.

I would make this comment about the Michigan State proposal here: I don't think you get much research from this kind of organization. I think it reflects a service orientation, that is, it is more of a public relations, bring-everybody-into-the-planning, kind of arrangement, than it is a center for research. This is not to criticize it. Somebody has to do this sort of thing and it's very important, but in a way it reflects the dilemma of the community college; on the one hand an area that has this tremendous service call to its region, its community, etc., and yet on the other hand an area where we do need some kind of substantial understanding. I am a little bothered by the need for research and understanding in this area on the one hand, and the understandable attraction of diversity for the people in higher education on the other hand. That is, I don't really see very much tuning up going on. What I think I see are a few research centers around the country where some good things are happening; particularly at Berkeley and Michigan, and perhaps one or two others. I also see a few isolated professors, who are very busy with program and guiding dissertations of a variety of kinds because their clientele is so heterogeneous. While, I myself, feel that I like the idea of a program being developed for a man, I wonder what the consequences will be of not approaching this in a more programatic way. I might suggest that it leaves something of a void because you may find that many of the future people are trained either in programs in counseling or in programs in administration. I do think that the great features of the programs in administration that will benefit the programs in higher education will be some of the applications of research knowhow to these programs as people in administration more and more become oriented toward a broader type of understanding of educational organization. I think this will be very useful to the junior college researcher who wants to look at administration in junior colleges.

One question that is always valuable to ask is what are the consequences of a particular thing; a particular form of organization, for example. One of the consequences of this kind of organization will be that you won't get very good research, but you will get good service programs. What are the consequences of the vocational orientation for the junior college? What are the likely consequences of the transfer orientation? It seems to me that the vocational orientation will have as its primary consequences for the junior college: (1) That the junior college will become more like high school, (2)its faculty will be more like high school teachers and (3) the business and industrial community will have a greater influence in the shaping of the program.

If you have a transfer situation, what are the likely consequences? Obviously, the universities will have tremendous influence on these programs. The faculties will try to be more like university faculties, etc. I think there will be a wide number of consequences both extra-organizational and within the organization. These questions I think are very significant and useful as well as the kinds of things about which a great deal of data must be gathered in order to resolve the problem.

SMITH: As a director of one of these administration training programs, I would like to say that first we try to select our people from those that have had somewhat the same kind of background that O'Connell has had, for example, and then perhaps add to their abilities and aptitudes so that they might become proficient administrators. Anderson has said that the president of a community college should probably be more of a philosopher than a manager. I think he has to be more of an educator than a manager.

Part of all our programs are beyond the so-called course work. We try to combine theory and practice through various kinds of activities. I agree that these programs have to be more or less tailor made to fit the particular individual; matching what he needs with what he's had and what his background has been. All of the people, however, on this Kellogg program are expected to spend at least one term as an intern working in a community college at the administrative level and must do a commendable piece of research that perhaps makes some contribution to the whole field of community college administration.

All of us who have the programs, have to make an annual report that shows just how many of our people are presidents in community college positions. We also do a follow-up evaluation of the success of these people. There are a number of others that are at sub-level community college positions. As we are talking this morning, eight of our people who have finished our program have gone directly into the presidency of a community college and others have gone in as deans of instruction, deans of student personnel services, deans of vocational technical divisions, etc. As we move into our sixth year, we are in the process of evaluating just how successful our program has been. One of the ways in which we are going to have to justify the continuance of this program will be in terms of how successful these people have been who have been placed in administration.

I certainly do not agree with you, O'Connell, that the persons who have these jobs, such as you have, are going to be any more successful than a person who has had those kinds of experiences in addition to our program. Outside of our Kellogg Fellows, we also have many other people in the so-called community college training program. They are screened for admission for advanced graduate study according to university rules, and in an additional way because we are going to give them money. I would, if course, defend our program; but I had a feeling that O'Connell was a little skeptical about a formalized program.

O'CONNELL: I would say that I think the leadership programs are good; I would just give them a much lower priority than Dr. Anderson did in his paper. In my own case, most of the group of people who came up to the graduate school in public administration at the Maxwell School are not now, some 15 years later, in positions of public administration for which they were specifically trained. Without casting any reflections on my classmates, my hunch is that most of the sharper of the group found a plethora of opportunities both in government and private industry and in education in something other than that for which they were trained. So my own prediction based on this experience would be that if we looked at your group (Smith's) 15 years from now, we would find many of them have moved into four-year educational administration; and that's fine. Indeed, the movement back and forth from one kind of administration to another is a very healthy thing. I think we are pointing at a moving target and it's a little hard to predict how many administrative positions, 10 to 15 years from now, we are going to find we are actually filling.

I would say that the president of a community college, like the president of a four-year college or a bureau or department head in government, ought to be a generalist administrator. This includes some philosophy, some manager ability, and the highest level of educational outlook. Above all, however, he should be the generalist administrator; and you find these people everywhere. If you want to put this intellectual capacity on a scale, it is perhaps 4th or 5th after such things as energy, ability to work smoothly with people, and some others. I think you find your presidents and top personnel for colleges in a whole variety of other jobs. The best ones that I have seen have come from a variety of backgrounds and turn out to be good generalist administrators. I'm not sure you can train them to be this.

WILLOWER: It seems to me that this type of comment (O'Connell's) where you tend to rank energy, intellect, etc., is the very kind of thing that we need to do research on. I don't really think you can support your opinion and I don't think you propose to support it, but based on your experience you think energy is 4 or 5 categories above intelligence. This is the kind of think we need to look at in a reasoned, careful manner against some theoretical basis. We would be much further ahead by doing so.

I think Dr. Smith's comments are wholly appropriate. Regardless of where you find somebody that looks good, you want them to be exposed to experience that will make them think carefully about the position for which you propose to prepare them. Insofar as the program in administration does this—wonderful. Insofar as the program in some other field does this—wonderful, too. I think, though, I can be very detached about this because I don't run a junior college or don't have anything to do with a program in higher education.

SMITH: The other area about which I would like to briefly comment is that of training teachers for the community college profession. Back in 1962, our state eliminated certification requirements for community college teachers and that is the trend as far as I can see. Up until that time there were certain courses of education that they had to have; educational psychology, history of education, etc. Those of us who were in the teacher training business and were turning out certified community college people then asked this question, "Now what do you want our program to be?" We've formed a committee of administrators plus those of us in teacher training institutions and drew up guidelines for the employment of professional staff in Michigan community colleges.

I agree with another statement our speaker made in regard to having too many courses in the area of education. But, we were still old-fashioned enough to agree upon having four areas. The Master's Degree was, of course, the basic minimum in this guideline. There were four things we felt these people should have and the best way to get it would probably be in courses in teacher training institutions. If they didn't have a knowledge of these four things, they could be hired but would be expected to take courses, study on their own, or engage in in-service activity.

These areas are: (A) An understanding of the history of the function, purpose, philosophy and curriculum of the community college, (B) an understanding of instructional problems and the knowledge of and competence in utilizing materials in methods of teaching at the community college level, (C) a knowledge of the characteristics and behavior of community college students and (D) a knowledge of research in the community college field as well as an understanding of research techniques appropriate to instructional improvement in the field to be taught. That is about all the Michigan community college administrators require besides the Master's Degree with a major in the discipline in which they are going to teach.

We have developed the Ed.S., or education specialist, program one year beyond the Master's Degree level which strengthens the academic field or discipline in which a person is going to teach but still spells out these above 4 areas. If they have gotten them during a Master's program, all 45 hours may be taken in their academic field; but if they lack 3 to 6 or 9 hours, they may take 3 or 6 hours as a cognate field to their education specialist degree diploma. I think, therefore, that a person is better off if he has all these other abilities and attributes as well as first hand experience at least in an in-service or intern program in a community college or in an administration training program.

ANDERSON: I have no quarrels with the members of the panel who have commented on my remarks of the morning. We have had an interesting discussion which reveals differences of emphases rather than differences of subtance. Some of the panel have put the priorities one way, some another. I believe that at this moment the variety, the variation, the different points of view which we find revealed, are a very healthy thing. They also serve to reveal what I called the state of the art.

Question: I'd like to ask Professor Anderson about one comment that he made. He indicated that at the present time the number of courses in higher education should probably number between three and six.

Would you elaborate a bit about the content and priority you would assign to these various courses?

ANDERSON: I believe all would agree to a general survey course that includes historical material, but which concentrates more upon the current status—where we are in the field of higher education—that includes a considerable amount of normative data.

A number of universities offer a course in the curriculum of higher education. Students seem to find this course useful. In such a course in curriculum the issues surrounding general education are raised, and the technology of designing a curriculum for general and liberal education is presented.

Currently there appears to be a waive of interest in a course that focuses upon the student in the college. I assume there is a place for a course in organization and administration of higher education. The courses which I have just commented on should be based on material presented in the survey course.

A number of institutions have a special course on the community college as an entity in its own right—with a particular philosophy and a particular history. This course serves to orient future two-year college teachers and administrators to the nature of the institution in which they will presumably work.

I, personally, would feel more comfortable with a program in higher education which emphasizes individual study by advanced students, seminars which probe in depth current issues in higher education, and related types of activity which strive to formulate new conceptualizations of various aspects of the institution we call "higher learning."

Comment: I think I'd like to make a confession and an objection. I think there is no question about the need for the university in its role as objective observant of the community colleges. I think we in the community college movement probably have been guilty of stressing our failures. We have been hoping for 100% accomplishment of our objectives in conscientious students. When we haven't reached that 100%, we have emphasized it to the point where we have given other people the impression that maybe we are operating at only 15% efficiency; or 15% of what our basic objectives are. This is where I think universities might play an important role. They might conduct research to point out realistically the positive aspects of the whole community college movement.

We have been bemoaning our lack of personnel services. Max Raines has traveled around the country and knows there are many good programs, and he knows they could be better. On the other hand, the extent of the job being done isn't really that bad. We have worries about adult education; or not reaching our entire constituency. But we can see Erie County Technical Institute with 5000 enrolled in the evening division. There are other colleges right here in New York State with double the enrollment in the evening division as that in the day.

We've worried about our vocational-occupational education, yet Max Smith knows perfectly well that in Michigan there is an articulation with many colleges of the area; between vocational programs in the high school and the less sophisticated programs in the community college. We hear about high tone liberal arts in New England, and yet in Massachusetts, where the movement is relatively new, we discovered that better than 50% of our students are enrolled in the non-transfer program. Possibly we ourselves, those of us in the movement, have been guilty of giving the impression that we're not doing very much of a job. I think instead this reflects on our wanting to do a 100% job.

Ray Schultze just completed a study going back to 1950 or 1952 on the background, opinions, etc of administrators in community colleges throughout the country. I think it will be extremely helpful to those who are worried about the preparation of administrators of these colleges.

I think the university's first responsibility for research would be in the area of discovering exactly what the community colleges are doing. Probably the best example of the problems in this area is the reaction I received at a certain university, which happens to be on the other side of the Charles River and whose colors are not referred to as red, but crimson. Knowing that we're going to need better than 1,000 faculty members in our community college system within the next ten years, I hoped to encourage them to consider the preparation of these faculty members. I was asked this question: "Community colleges: Are they four-year institutions or are they like the junior colleges?"